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EDITORIAL

On April 24 and 25, 1942, there was held at New York University the Institute on Educational Reconstruction, under the auspices of the School of Education and the United States Committee on Educational Reconstruction, perhaps the most significant conference of the year and one that probably will influence education vitally.

The original purpose was to have a small intimate conference of perhaps twenty-five or thirty invited persons representing a cross section of American life in so far as was possible. As a matter of fact, by the time the conference did occur, one hundred and twenty-five persons had signified their desire to attend and participate in the conference. Most of these had invitations that resulted from specific requests for permission to attend. Our difficulty was to keep the number down to a limit where actual discussion could take place.

The conference was composed of representatives of a dozen of the Allied Nations and from every interest in American life—capital, labor, university presidents, professors, and laymen interested in educational reconstruction. The conference continued for two days with no set speeches but with vigorous discussion and final complete agreement on the program.

We have attempted in the report of committees which is pub-

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lished in this issue to give the essential emphasis of this conference rather than to report what actually took place. It is necessary to indicate that the most important emphases were the need of an international bureau of education, patterned after the labor bureau of the League of Nations, and the discussion of the program of education during the late adolescent period from sixteen to twenty-five years of age. While one can never present in summaries what took place at a meeting of this kind, the various committees presenting these summaries have done an excellent job and I am sure our subscribers will read this issue with deepest interest.

E. George Payne

THE DEMOCRATIC IDEAL OF EQUALITY OF EDUCATION AND EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY

ALONZO F. MYERS

There has long been recognized in the United States the necessity for much greater equalization of opportunity for education than now exists. Much has been accomplished along this line by individual States. Much also has been accomplished by publicly and privately supported institutions of higher learning through the provision of scholarships, loan funds, and plans for self-help. It is increasingly being recognized, however, that this task can be accomplished satisfactorily only through the large-scale participation by the Federal Government in the financing of programs for the equalization of educational opportunity.

Only dimly do we now begin to realize that this problem of equality of opportunity is larger than a United States problem. It is a world problem. Just as we realize that an enlightened citizenry is essential to the preservation of democracy in the United States, and that our democracy is not safe so long as we do not make universal provision for equality of educational opportunity, so now are we forced by the impact of world events to recognize that this principle must be extended to all peoples as the first and most fundamental condition for the establishment of a world society in which men may be free and live at peace with their neighbors.

Following the final victory of democracy over Axis despotism, there must be an intensive application of democratic ideals and practices throughout the world. Equality of opportunity for education is the first, foremost, and most fundamental application of democratic ideals to the life of the whole younger generation. It will be essential for the people, and especially the youth, of the world to know that unequal treatment of youth in educational opportunities has gone

forever. Under democracy every talent must find its proper place to develop and grow to its highest form.

The realization of this ideal of equality of opportunity will provide the democratic nations and the coming democratic world unity with an abundance of superior talent of brain and hand, of character and leadership. Such an abundance of talent will be urgently needed to meet the great task of reconstruction facing our world after final victory. By this rule of equality of opportunity, democracy offers to mankind something no despotism ever can achieve. By doing more than despotism ever dares to do, democracy sends its roots deep into the hearts of the people.

The principle of equality of educational opportunity excludes any discrimination based on sex, race, social status, confession, or political opinion. No class or minority shall enjoy any special privileges or suffer under any disadvantages in this matter of opportunity for education. Every mother, every father shall know that their children by their own effort will make a new start in life, and will reach, inside a friendly and cooperative society, exactly the goal that their talents and efforts bring within their reach. Only if every young generation makes in this sense society new again, can democracy live and avoid senility and sterility. Only by this application of equality of opportunity can the natural aristocracy of talents replace what Jefferson called the "Tinsel Aristocracy" based on privileges only.

As soon as these fundamental rights are established, the application of these principles calls for great wisdom and true educational statesmanship. It means that the first years in school shall see all children united in one unified public-school system. Here, at least, one society without privileges shall emerge. The children shall be one, as their natural instinct is inclined toward oneness and equality. But as soon as the differentiations of talents and gifts develop and appear, the school system, too, shall be differentiated. Trained minds and hands are needed in many forms and fields, and talents natu-

rally tend toward many directions. The practically gifted, the young genius in science or in skill, or in modern languages, shall find early his own way of self-expression and perfection, equal in quality and importance to the way of the classical education.

To keep a highly gifted talent down to the average, or to mark the pace of development by the weakest runner would be as unwise as to keep achievement in sports down to the standard of mediocrity. Some develop later, only after life experience, to the full growth of their personalities. New chances, new starts, shall be offered by an extensive system of adult education.

One of the principal reasons for inequality of educational opportunity is the differentiation of financial resources of school districts. As there are rich and poor families, so are there rich and poor districts, provinces, and countries. Inequality of the resources of the districts stands in the way of true equality of educational opportunity in the same sense as inequality of the family resources. Both situations call, therefore, for democratic action. Poor States and districts need financial support from the whole of a nation, soon from the whole of the democratic world, to the end that a decent educational opportunity may be guaranteed to all. But the independent character of education as an outgrowth of local and district self-administration shall not be changed.

World War II marked the end of isolationism in America and in the world. War and modern instruments of warfare have demonstrated, even to the most ardent isolationist, that neither America nor any other part of the world can live at peace and in isolation from the rest of the world. Our future peace and prosperity are now inextricably interwoven with the peace and prosperity of the world. In a coöperative world, education cannot remain isolationist and nationalistic. Dr. M. Thomas Tchou (Chinese) expressed in a resolution presented to the Institute on Educational Reconstruction what our future course should be in relation to this matter:

Whereas prejudices based on ignorance and provincialism regarding

race, religion, and culture are a source of deadly hindrance to the realization of a peaceful democratic and just world order;

Whereas education in schools is often circumscribed by nationalistic considerations, and patriotism is often misunderstood as hatred of all nations except one's own;

Be it Resolved that the Institute recommends to all educational authorities of all nations to train youth for world citizenship as well as national citizenship, and to provide not only equality of education and equality of opportunity, but also to provide such contents of education as are based on equal consideration and treatment of the different races, religions, and cultures, to the end that a sane and constructive patriotism may be created as a basis for a democratic world order.

In attempting to give serious consideration to this important matter of providing at least some measure of equality of opportunity for the youth of the world, we in America are faced with a challenge, the like of which we have rarely faced. Intellectually, I believe that most thoughtful persons readily recognize the necessity for constructive action along this line. Practically, and realistically, we must recognize that our thinking and our action to date have been exceedingly provincial in such matters. Specifically, the American people have not as yet been willing to come to grips with this problem of equalization of educational opportunity for the youth of our own nation, much less for the youth of the world. What does the record show? In many of our local communities the education provided for the children on the wrong side of the railroad tracks is not of a quality comparable with that provided in the silk-stocking districts. Eight hundred thousand children of elementary-school age in the United States are not enrolled in any school. There is shocking evidence there of lack of equality of educational opportunity.

No one would argue that the educational provisions for Negroes in the South are comparable to those provided for the white children. Some, but not so many as formerly, still argue that the way to spoil a Negro is to educate him. Decisions of our United States Supreme Court, rendered during the past two or three years, are

breaking down these barriers of race discrimination in the matter of equality of educational opportunity. But we still have a long way to go. Negroes are not the only ones discriminated against. In the Southwest there are equally flagrant violations against Mexicans. In some communities the average class size for "white" children is thirty-five, while for Mexican children it is seventy or seventy-five.

Only a few of our States have made any appreciable contribution toward equalizing educational opportunity within their borders. Yet the most superficial consideration of the problem provides abundant evidence that to place sole or principal reliance upon the financial ability of local districts to support education must inevitably mean that a large share of American youth will be denied the opportunity for a decent education. For example in one State (Pennsylvania), for which I have figures at hand, the poorest district had back of each pupil $213.00 in assessed valuation; the richest had $39,444.00. In the former a five-mill property tax yielded $20.00 per teacher; in the latter, $3,625.00. It should be stated that Pennsylvania makes some State-wide provision for equalization of educational opportunity. In the example just cited, however, the poorer district received only fifty per cent more State subsidy than did the wealthy district.

Several States have worked out plans for the equalization of educational opportunity. Under the direction of Professor Paul R. Mort of Columbia University a plan was developed that attempted to distribute State aid on the basis of two fundamental principles. The first of these is the principle of need, expressed largely in terms of the number of children to be educated. The second is the principle of ability, or the wealth available in the district for the support of education A plan for equalization of educational opportunity based on these principles would work somewhat as follows: The State education department would make a thorough study of costs to determine what would be considered a satisfactory minimum educational program. Let us assume that this minimum is set at an

expenditure of $100.00 per year per pupil in average daily attendance. Any district that could meet that standard without exceeding the uniform minimum tax rate would receive no subsidy from the State. A poor district which could raise locally only $40.00 per pupil would be reimbursed by the State to the extent of $60.00 per pupil.

We are only now reaching the point in the United States at which the public conscience in this matter of equalizing opportunities for youth is receptive to the idea of equalizing educational opportunities within the respective States. Although there has long been agitation for a program of Federal equalization of educational opportunity, and although many bills have been introduced in Congress looking toward such an end, no comprehensive nation-wide action has taken place in the United States for the equalization of educational opportunity for the nation's youth. There can be little doubt as to the need for such action. Many of the States do not possess sufficient wealth and income to enable them to provide a decent education for their youth. The wealthy States cannot afford to be complacent about this problem. Underprivileged youth do not remain in the underprivileged areas. They migrate to the great industrial and commercial centers and there create social problems that are far more costly than would be the cost of a program of Federal equalization of educational opportunity for the nation's youth. Generally speaking, our poorer States exert much greater effort, and spend a much larger portion of their income on education than do the wealthier States. In spite of this effort, the amount available for education in the poorer States is unconscionably low. The following table tells the story. The data are from *Statistics of State School Systems,* United States Office of Education.

Current Expense per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance

(Not including interest)

State	*1929–1930*	*1933–1934*	*1937–1938*
Alabama	$37 28	$30.09	$34.27
Arizona	109.12	77.11	94.16
Arkansas	33.56	22 60	31 62
California	133.30	109 83	131.43
Colorado	110.76	78.30	87 41
Connecticut	102 58	82.12	104 47
Delaware	95.12	92 85	104.64
District of Columbia	132 39	107.30	123 05
Florida	50.61	40.73	59 91
Georgia	31 89	28.34	37 71
Idaho	86 86	57 09	75.00
Illinois	102 56	78.18	103.77
Indiana	91 66	60 20	77 01
Iowa	96 10	65.44	81.15
Kansas	92 81	60.19	72 84
Kentucky	46.23	33 37	44 49
Louisiana	48.19	36.12	54.09
Maine	69 89	52 09	60.36
Maryland	80 15	68.64	78 93
Massachusetts	109.57	95 69	109 81
Michigan	114 76	67 68	89 31
Minnesota	101 29	75.15	91.92
Mississippi	36 13	23.55	28.19
Missouri	70 28	60 27	70 68
Montana	109 73	79 24	104.12
Nebraska	93.08	57.48	70 67
Nevada	136 18	117 90	133 89
New Hampshire	92.77	79 67	92 13
New Jersey	124.90	102 53	125 53
New Mexico	77 21	60 19	71 30
New York	137 55	124 13	147 65
North Carolina	42 85	24 18	39 59
North Dakota	99 55	67 32	74 85
Ohio	95 69	72 51	86 23
Oklahoma	65 48	43 70	63 25
Oregon	103 31	68 90	87 88
Pennsylvania	87 81	75 04	92 82
Rhode Island	95 74	96 07	98 49
South Carolina	39 98	27 14	36 52
South Dakota	95 36	62 29	90 90
Tennessee	42 66	34 62	41 61
Texas	54 57	46 63	65 42

State	*1929–1930*	*1933–1934*	*1937–1938*
Utah	$ [illegible]	$ [illegible]	$ [illegible]
Vermont	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Virginia	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Washington	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
West Virginia	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Wisconsin	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Wyoming	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Total States	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

As in the several States, the chief objection to a Federal equalization measure has been fear of centralization of control of education. Except for an emergency grant to the States during the depression, and for an emergency appropriation in 1941, and again in 1942, to provide school facilities in communities suddenly overcrowded as a result of the defense program, no Federal money has been appropriated directly to support general education. These emergency grants and the subsidies for vocational education, following the Smith-Hughes and subsequent legislative measures, represent the only Federal appropriations for direct benefit to the public schools since the land grants in the early days of the Republic.

In 1936 the National Education Association sponsored a bill known as the Harrison-Fletcher Bill, designed to equalize distribution of Federal money to the States for education. Although this bill failed of enactment, it did develop considerable public sentiment for such a measure. Developments since 1936 have provided new and powerful arguments in favor of a Federal program for the equalization of educational opportunity. Senator Elbert Thomas of Utah, chairman of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, on April 7, 1941, introduced for himself and Senator Pat Harrison of Mississippi, chairman of the Senate Finance Committee, a bill, S1313, "to strengthen the national defense and promote the general welfare through the appropriation of funds to assist the states and territories in meeting financial emergencies in education" and "in reducing inequalities of educational opportunities." The purposes of this bill and the arguments in support of it are well stated in the

following quotation from an article by Willard E. Givens in the *Journal of the National Education Association* for May 1941:

There are at this time five distinct and measurable needs for financial assistance to the states for public schools:

1 The equalization of elementary- and secondary-school opportunities among the states and within the states.

2. The financial support of schools for Negroes in states maintaining separate schools for Negroes, made legally imperative by recent court decisions, interpreting the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States as affecting equal rights to educational opportunities.

3. School facilities for children recently removed to the areas of defense activities and industries.

4. The children of migratory workers, particularly workers engaged in seasonal occupations, largely agricultural.

5. The children of federal employees residing on federal reservations and properties.

There has been a long-standing need for federal funds to provide more nearly equal educational opportunities both among and within the states. The differences in educational opportunity are indicated by the fact that in one of our states the average annual expenditure per pupil is $134, while in another state a child who is an equally good American and who deserves a fair start in life is having only $24 per year spent on his education. Teachers' salaries range from an average of $500 in one of our poorer states to an average of $2500 in one of our richer states. Some states have at least three times as many of their children in high school as do other states. These differences in educational opportunity correspond approximately to the differences in the financial ability of the respective states to pay for public schools. Actually, the greatest effort to support schools is made by the poorest states The states with the least per capita income are also the states that have about twice as many children in proportion to adults as the richest states.

Recent court decisions have interpreted the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States as requiring better educational opportunities for Negroes The paying of lower salaries to Negro teachers than to white teachers on the ground of race or color has been held in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution The states having large Negro populations lack funds to correct the present situation without reducing their comparatively meager program of public education for white pupils in these states It will cost at least $50,000,000

annually to begin this program of equalization, and within a few years the annual amount will exceed $[illegible], which is more than 20 per cent of the present cost of elementary and secondary schools in these states.

The federal funds are to be apportioned to the respective states on the basis of their need for educational funds. Need is to be determined on the basis of such factors as financial ability, the number of children, and the need for additional public school facilities. Using such factors, a board of apportionment appointed by the President will determine the amount of funds to go to each state.

In February 1942, S1313 Substitute was introduced in the Senate as a substitute measure for S1313, described above. S1313 Substitute calls for an appropriation of $300,000,000 a year, these funds to be spent for general aid for public elementary and secondary schools through the fourteenth year. The money would be allocated to the States on the basis of the total number of children five to seventeen years of age and the personal net income in each State, thus providing for allotments to the States in proportion to their needs and ability. The funds would be expended through public agencies under public control.

The equalization features of S1313 Substitute are the same as in the former S1313. Each State would develop its own plan for equalizing educational opportunity within its borders. The bill provides that minority groups, in States where separate schools are maintained, will receive their full share of the funds in proportion to their numbers and without any reduction in the proportion of funds which they have been receiving from State and local sources. Other items which were included in the former S1313 are provided for in separate bills.

The arguments for equalization of financial support of education are as follows:

1. Our present financial machinery was established for social and economic conditions that have been materially changed.

2. There has been a tendency for wealth to be concentrated in a few large centers at the expense of large areas of the country.

3. Many communities cannot support a minimum program of education without outside assistance.

4. Education is more than a local program and it seems logical for the State to assume the major portion of the support.

It seems probable that some form of equalization of educational opportunity will be effected in the United States within the next year. If this does not happen there will be widespread breakdown of educational services in many local communities and States. What form Federal equalization will take remains to be determined. Certainly it must be accomplished with a minimum of Federal control: merely enough to guarantee that the Federal money is being spent for the purposes for which it was appropriated. Certainly teachers must be paid much higher salaries than they are now being paid in the poorest communities. A minimum of twelve hundred dollars for an eight-month school term is absolutely necessary if we are to be able to maintain educational services at a decent level. I do not believe that the American people will be willing to see our public-school system wrecked in this war, as it was wrecked in World War I.

Certainly there must be a guarantee on the part of the Federal Government that, at the end of this war, service men and men and women in war industries will be provided an opportunity to resume their education and to receive retraining for the purpose of facilitating their transfer from war work to the work demanded in a peacetime economy. That would be much cheaper than a revolution.

How do we extend this concept of equalization of opportunity to take into account the demands of a world situation? Time is short, and we must extend our horizons quickly. It will not be enough to equalize opportunities for our American youth. Our future peace and prosperity depend upon our vision and upon our willingness and determination to extend this principle to the youth of the world. We cannot impose it upon the world. But we can establish the machinery for promoting the ideal of equality of opportunity throughout the world. This is more than the dictators have ever

dared to promise. We must not only promise it but we must make it a reality.

To implement this promise and to provide the machinery for its fulfillment, the Institute on Educational Reconstruction recommended to the United Nations that there be established an International Education Office, with a framework and an organization not unlike that of the International Labor Office. It would be the immediate responsibility of this proposed International Education Office to plan for postwar education throughout the world and to plan for child care and the rehabilitation of children in all countries. The International Education Office should develop and promote the ideal of equality of educational opportunity throughout the world. To this end it should conduct studies and should counsel with national governments. The results of its studies and of its planning should be made known to the peoples of Axis and Axis-dominated countries before the end of hostilities. When the war ends, the International Education Office should be ready to begin functioning immediately in all countries. One important function of the International Education Office should be the supervision and sponsorship of textbooks and other instructional materials that would have world-wide validity and that could be recommended for use in schools of all countries.

If we can persuade our Government and the United Nations to establish this proposed International Education Office now, while the war is on, we will have taken a first long step toward broadening our own horizons sufficiently to be able to see that the future peace and prosperity of the world depend to an astonishing degree upon the equalization of opportunity for the youth of all the world, regardless of their color, their religion, their economic status, or their political beliefs.

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PLANNING SCHOOLS FOR TOMORROW[1]

JOHN GUY FOWLKES

Editor's Note: The topic discussed at the session was: "How Can a Society of Free Men Provide Opportunity for Education and Work for Youth (Ages Sixteen to Twenty-five) After the War?" While the report prepared does not give the discussion and conclusion of the Institute, it is a thought-provoking presentation of one aspect of it, namely "Educational Planning," and is, therefore, pertinent to this issue.

It should be noted here, however, that the Institute agreed that a planned and adequate program of work and study should be provided for all youth during adolescence and that the critical period of education in the postwar world is from sixteen to twenty-five in the life of youth. While schools now provide a book education for ten per cent of adolescents of this age period, the problem is to provide a program of study and activity adapted to the needs and potentialities of all youth. Democracy cannot survive under a system of education that provides opportunity for only ten per cent of youth that, by virtue of circumstances, have the money and time to attend college and the abstract type of intelligence that can profit from a program made up exclusively of book study.

THE CASE FOR PLANNING

There are two radically different views with respect to social and economic development. One of them, characterized by the term "laissez faire" or "pretty much do as you please," holds that the most desirable and the greatest amount of development occurs when there is no direction other than that which is inherent in the activities themselves. It supports a "let-alone" policy; that is, the least amount of direction the better and the greater will be the progress.

[1] Adapted from a manuscript prepared by the author in cooperation with the Committee on Educational Planning of the United States Office of Education.

The extreme proponents of this view even argue that any concerted effort to direct is likely to result only in harm.

The other view holds that socially desirable development does not simply occur but that behind it there is intelligent direction toward a purpose or purposes. This view is proving increasingly acceptable. It appears to be the only tenable view as population increases and as social institutions become more complex. The basic philosophy leads to considered attempts to regulate human activity and to direct it toward desired goals. Involved in the second view of social progress is the idea of planning, which is nothing more than charting courses toward goals that have been agreed upon.

Why plan? Nothing seems more certain now than the fact that "the good old days are gone." The impact of economic changes, technological development, movements of population, and governmental control are stimulating a type of thinking that is little short of revolutionary. The fears produced by the depression of the thirties have by no means disappeared, although they may have temporarily subsided. There is grave danger that when the end of the war is in sight there will be a wave of hysteria induced by fear of an impending economic crash. This fact is clearly recognized by many farseeing persons, and some of them are proposing plans and policies to avert such a disaster. Plans are being laid, some of them official, to cope with the situation.

Certainly social planning must be comprehensive if it is to be effective. All types of useful social institutions must have places in it. Education as a basic social enterprise must have important consideration, and it behooves those who are interested in educational service to busy themselves with plans and policies for the future. Educators and laymen who are concerned with adequate provision for education of all the people have to recognize that new days demand both an expansion of the good practices and policies that have been developed and the devising of new ways to meet new situations.

Planning facilitates social progress in several ways. First, through

it there can be common agreement concerning what is to be done; every one can understand what is proposed and can accept or reject it. This is in accordance with democratic traditions and practices. Second, individuals and groups can coöperate more easily if plans have been made than if no course has been laid out. Third, effort and funds can be saved by following a well-laid-out scheme, and the results are likely to be much more satisfactory than if sole reliance is placed upon trial and error in attaining the desired purposes. Only by systematic and carefully executed planning can educational needs be met adequately and economically.

What is involved in planning? Educational planning is by no means an altogether new thing. The educational survey, which uses a large number of scientific procedures, has been widely employed in evaluating educational practices and policies and in planning improved educational services and facilities. In a recent report[3] of the National Resources Planning Board the pattern of social and economic planning, in so far as it can be said to have a pattern, is summed up as follows:

1. The determination of goals
2. The inventory of conditions
3. The discovery of needs as the inventory is compared with the goals
4. The projection of alternative solutions
5. Policy making, or the choice of the most feasible alternatives
6. The absorption and execution of the plan by the community, State, or nation

The United States of America is committed to a democratic way of living. We are, therefore, committed to a cultural program that prepares people for living in a democracy. A national culture that will produce a citizenship qualified to lead democratic life demands complete coöperation among both individuals and groups. The creation and maintenance of a social environment that will produce the types of citizens demanded by our democracy require:

[3] National Resources Planning Board, Annual Report, 1942, page 125

1. A universal understanding of what the cultural needs of citizens in our democracy are: What are the needs and hence the goals?

2. A recognition of the specific agencies and means necessary to provide the experiences that our citizens need: How can needs be met?

3. An examination of our existing institutions and services in the light of the cultural objectives or goals that have been set: goals, most of which examination should come a recognition of the extent to which our present cultural opportunities are adequate and inadequate, satisfactory and unsatisfactory: How well are we meeting our needs?

4. A concerted effort by all to improve existing cultural agencies and to establish the types and kinds of institutions and services that are needed: What to do?

Executing consists of the redirection and improvement of the cultural agencies and services we now have and the addition of necessary new ones. Only to the degree that consistent and continuous effort is extended toward the improvement of our existing cultural program can a satisfactory pattern of life be achieved.

Who should plan? Planning a cultural program must be recognized and assumed as a responsibility of each and every person both young and old, both individually and collectively. Leaders in education, health, library services, recreation, art, and all other areas of cultural development must point the way to planning opportunities for social welfare and growth. The citizens of this country must join hands with the leaders in this essential activity. It is the duty of the leaders to propose, to explain, and to interpret what seem to them to be imperative improvements in the cultural program. It is the function of the citizens to consider, review, refuse or adopt, and put into effect the proposals of the cultural leaders.

Specific provision for participation in planning by adults should be made. Councils, planning commissions, committees, and conferences on planning are some of the groups by means of which planning may be effected.

Opportunity to participate in cultural planning should also be given to the youth of our country. Youth should have the right to

help decide their own fate and to acquire the habit of looking ahead and coöperating in the establishment of a cultural program that will save them as oldsters from the social deficiencies that now exist. Youth councils should be established in local communities and counties throughout the country. Such councils might be well patterned after the youth councils of England and should include both youth and adults. The organization of youth councils might well be centered around the office of the city or county superintendent of schools and should include representatives from all public and private agencies alike that are concerned with planning a sound social program. Youth should be listened to as well as listen. Since planning for the cultural program of a democracy involves participation of all citizens, the methods and procedures employed must lend themselves to full use by laymen as well as professional workers.

How to plan? There is great need for the development of improved methods and procedures of cultural planning. Such methods and procedures must furnish ways and means for examining our existing cultural institutions in terms of our cultural idealism. In examining our existing cultural program some of the basic questions which should be raised are:

1 Are the existing institutions rendering the services that are needed?

2. Are the services rendered by existing agencies as good as they should be?

3 Are the existing institutions soundly organized and are they operating efficiently?

4 Can present institutions be changed so that existing inadequacies in our present cultural program be met?

5 Are new and different cultural institutions needed, and if so what are they?

6 What changes are needed in existing legislative and statutory provisions that control our cultural program?

7. To what degree are the national, State, and local governments
   a) financially responsible for the cultural program?
   b) meeting their financial responsibility in terms of their financial ability?

8. How can the national and State governments increase their financial support of the cultural program without weakening the strength of State and local governments, which is so essential in a democracy?

The further discussion indicates some major issues and needs in relation to an adequate program of public education.

WHAT KIND OF SCHOOLS?

A recent report of the National Resources Planning Board states that the goals of education are as follows: "To provide for every child and youth education and training of the kinds best adapted to his abilities and in the amount calculated to develop his maximum usefulness to himself, his community, and society."[1]

A good operating charter for public education is:

1. The best possible educational opportunity in light of financial resources that are or can be made available

2. Operating efficiency in the management of public education so that maximum value per dollar spent is realized

A system of public education that is to meet these goals and observe this charter must:

1. Offer a full program of education adapted to the capacities and interests of all the individuals whom the schools should serve.

2. Provide carefully selected teachers, supervisors, administrators, and specialists such as nurses, physicians, dentists, psychiatrists, librarians, etc., who are competent, well prepared, and interested in the development of community life.

3. Have safe and sanitary school buildings adapted to the educational experiences and services to be offered, adequate grounds, and suitable equipment and instructional materials.

4. Be built upon an effective State and local organization coordinated with other State and local educational and social agencies, which makes possible the offering of needed educational services efficiently. A good advisory service from the Federal Government should be available

5. Be supported adequately and jointly by the local, State, and Federal governments.

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 129.

The character of educational service. All education should be usable. Usability in terms of need should be the basis for examining and evaluating the educational program. Education should teach people how to be, to do, and to live. Full opportunity should be available for the acquisition of knowledge and certain necessary skills and for the development of useful appreciations, attitudes, and ideals. The three R's no longer constitute a sufficiently comprehensive education for the needs of modern life. The arts as well as the R's must be a part of the educational experience of each individual. Hands and hearts, as well as minds, should have a place in the development and training program. Music, drawing, physical education, student councils, debating and speaking experience are just as truly significant as are reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Since certain human needs are common to all people, a given minimum education should be taken by every one. Beyond this desired common minimum education, there should be wide and varied differentiation. The development of hobbies in terms of tastes and abilities is of high importance to individual living. Obviously, hobbies will vary greatly. Latin may be a hobby for some people, while photography, stamp collecting, and golf may be the hobbies of others. Although the development of hobbies can often probably best take place upon the basis of unorganized individual effort, at the same time specific and definite provisions should be made in the formal educational program for the development of many aided interests.

Education should teach people how to do—that is, how to work; the way in which a person is able to earn his living. Encouraging preparation for a given job implies that opportunity will be available to use such preparation. Possibility of getting a job, as well as interest and ability, must be considered in choosing a field for specialized training.

There is now and during the postwar period there will be urgent need for much more opportunity for education that prepares one

specifically for earning a living. Specialized education should be made much more widely available on a national, regional, State, or local basis.

An individual may use a school experience for widely different purposes. Also, a single school experience may meet the markedly varying needs of many individuals. Thus one may learn to read and speak Spanish for the purpose of understanding and appreciating the music, history, and life of the Spanish and Latin American people, while another may acquire the ability to read and speak Spanish in order that he may teach the language or act as an interpreter.

A well-organized educational program recognizes the various possible objectives of school experience. The basic point of view around which a school must be organized is that the school exists only for the discovery and development of human abilities and qualities; in other words, that the school exists in order that the individual may learn efficiently.

What a good school should have. Full human development is the essence of a school's objective. Therefore, the essential offerings in a good school program must be wide and varied. The list of minimum essentials of a good educational program is much longer than is now found in the majority of our schools. At least the following pupil services and experiences should be available: educational and vocational guidance; necessary formally organized teaching; library services; extracurricular activities; work experience; junior placement services; transportation; cafeteria; health services, including nutrition, medical, dental, nursing, and psychiatric, and camp.

The only one of the list of minimum essentials for a good school that is now universally provided is that of formally organized teaching. Furthermore, the nature of much of our organized teaching at present within institutions of higher learning, as well as the lower schools, leaves much to be desired. It was recently observed that the "lecture textbook memorizing type of learning" occurs no place in

life save in the school. Teachers at all levels would do well to become familiar with and utilize the ways in which people learn outside of school. Teaching at its best is the stimulation and direction of learning. A good teacher is a companion and adviser to the learner.

Much improvement is needed in the atmosphere and nature of formal teaching. Methods of teaching must be improved. Democracy must obtain in teacher-pupil relationships as well as in the teacher-administrative and teacher-supervisory relationships in a school.

An effective system of public education must have a well-organized guidance program. Only to the degree that the experiences and services people have are appropriate to their needs and abilities can such educational opportunity be beneficial. All other essential requirements for a good school program as well as formalized teaching and guidance need much attention and study. The educational program is particularly deficient with respect to health service, library service, work experience, camp experience, and placement service.

Because of its value in developing character, work is essential for all people at all ages, regardless of their economic status. A good work program should include provision for some work without pay as well as some work with pay. There are many opportunities for work in the schools. A coöperative analysis of the possibility of work by teachers and pupils and the formulation of a school work program would be highly valuable.

As people grow older and acquire semivocational and vocational skills, the amount of work without pay should decrease and the amount of work with pay should increase. As people mature, the work program should include placement and follow-up services, since becoming qualified to render special work service implies the opportunity to work. Placement service for adults is not a function of the school, but schools may well provide a junior placement service.

Camping experience is needed as a regular part of the educational program throughout the country. Such camping experience should be recognized not as a thing apart nor as a substitute for other educational opportunity. Some of the benefits of camp life are physical hardening, work experience, and rich opportunity for nature study. These physical experiences are just as essential in full human development as are the three R's and the arts.

Providing for various age groups. It is generally recognized that the first six years of an individual's life are probably the most important in the establishment of certain attitudes and traits of character. Despite this fact the educational opportunity available for the early age group is tragically inadequate. Practically no educational opportunity save a few private nursery schools is now provided for the two- and three-year-olds. Approximately eighty five per cent of the children of kindergarten age (four and five) are not enrolled in kindergartens. Furthermore, the very terms—namely, "preschool" and "nursery school"—that have been used in referring to the education of the two- to five-year-old children seem to imply that their education is not an integral part of the regular school program. "Early school group" seems to be a much better term for referring to the two- to five-year-olds than "nursery" or "preschool."

The situation with respect to adequate educational opportunity for adults is even worse. Our system of public education in the past was founded upon the motto, "You can't teach an old dog new tricks." As recently as twenty-five years ago it was generally assumed that learning after seventeen or eighteen years of age was difficult and relatively inefficient. Scientific investigations of human learning have proved that study and learning can be highly effective and profitable up through at least the first sixty years of life. Consequently, it is clear that educational opportunities should be offered for adults as well as for children.

The educational program of our country must be enriched and extended both downward and upward. The best ways of providing

for special age groups, particularly the sixteen-to-twenty-five-year age group and adults, demand serious consideration. It seems probable that, after the completion of a desirable minimum level of formal schooling, continuous education of various types either in connection with or independent of educational institutions should receive serious consideration; for example, there is a great need for education for parenthood not only prior to but during the period of parenthood.

Special condition groups. There are a number of special condition groups which are greatly in need of educational opportunity and services specially adapted to their peculiar needs. Among the most important of these are the physically handicapped, the mentally deficient, the mentally gifted, minority racial groups, minority national groups, and the socially maladjusted.

Society must exert special effort in meeting the needs of those who are suffering from a serious physical or mental deficiency. Providing educational opportunity for those groups should be an item of special financial support by the State. Despite this fact, more than half of our States at present fail to provide any funds for the education of the mentally deficient and physically handicapped children. Approximately only a third of the States provide supervisory service for education in this field. The effect of this deficiency in our educational program is very well stated in the report of the Advisory Committee on Education, "The unhappiness in childhood and the loss of efficiency in adult life that result from failure to meet the educational needs of handicapped children cannot be calculated."

With respect to the development of an understanding and appreciation of the nature of our democratic way of living, especially in connection with the operation of our government, there are two minority groups that need special general education—namely, minority racial groups and minority national groups. The so-called program of Americanization should be revised and recognized as an important part of the regular educational offering, made the

responsibility of the school, and thus put in the hands of professionally trained teachers.

The educational opportunity for and treatment of the socially maladjusted, whether so identified legally or not, need a great deal of attention. Psychiatric services should be available for this group. The education and treatment of the socially maladjusted is a matter of correction and rehabilitation socially as well as vocationally. The educational program for maladjusted people should be one of helping them to establish or reestablish themselves both socially and vocationally. The development of abilities and strengths rather than the administration of punishments must be the basis for developing a sound educational program for the socially maladjusted.

Equal rural and urban opportunity. A child who lives in rural territory in our country does not have as good a chance of getting the education that he needs as does a child who lives in an urban community. On all counts educational opportunity in rural areas falls short in comparison with educational opportunity in urban territories. There can be no doubt of the inadequate educational opportunity available for most of our children who live in the country.

The inequality of educational opportunity as between rural and urban situations prevails at both the elementary- and the secondary-school levels. Much of the rural territory is not included in high-school districts. Moreover, many children residing within high-school districts do not have access to high school because of distance or other geographic barriers. The qualifications required for teaching in rural schools, especially the elementary schools, are decidedly lower than requirements imposed by urban schools.

One of the most important aspects of any school for any age group is the opportunity to associate with people of comparable age and both similar and varied interests and experiences. Education is obtained through experiences, and it is greatly conditioned by the social situation in which it takes place. Social development resulting

in desirable balance and bearing among individuals can be gained in no other way than through group association. Thousands of our rural schools, both elementary and secondary, enroll too few children to provide essential group association.

There is little evidence that the curriculum of the rural elementary schools has been sufficiently changed from the days of the past to meet the general educational needs of present-day life. There similarly has been insufficient revision of the rural high-school curriculum. To be sure, excellent work is being done in agriculture and home economics in many of our rural areas, but such opportunities are by no means universally available. Not only should rural children learn about the vocational opportunities available in urban areas, but attention should be given also to the opportunities for work available in rural territory. On the basis of cost alone, the small enrollment in many rural schools prohibits plant facilities for many opportunities enjoyed by urban schools.

Nearly half of all children enrolled in elementary and secondary schools in our country live in rural areas. So long as the lack of educational opportunity of rural territory prevails, we cannot hope to have a national citizenship which has reached a desirable minimum level of social, economic, and political thought. The improvement of educational opportunity for children living in rural areas must be the personal concern of all people regardless of their place of residence, and of all governments including local, State, and national.

It seems clear that the educational program of tomorrow must meet human needs to a much higher degree than is the case at present. Those responsible for the educational program are obligated as never before to point the way toward the establishment of opportunities that will meet the needs of all the people of all abilities.

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POSTWAR CHILD CARE AND EDUCATION

ALICE V. KELIHER

We are determined that we shall defeat Hitler and that we shall win the war against all that he stands for—the destructive ideas of totalitarianism. But we must prepare ourselves realistically to face the fact that the defeat of Hitler, and his minor satellites, is not enough. This would be only ridding the world of a set of ideas and actions. As important as this is, it is not constructive; it is hollow and vacuous unless at the same time positive and constructive ideas and actions are being built to replace those destroyed.

All thoughtful people foresee the potential chaos that can follow the end of fighting on the various fronts of this war. Young people of Germany and Japan, especially, have been indoctrinated to believe that their human leaders, Hitler and Hirohito, are divine. We hear firsthand reports of the attitudes of young Nazis now in Allied prisoner-of-war camps. These young people live with a single passion to return to the Nazi fight and aid their "God" in his world conquest. More than this, we read of conversations, heard by anti-Nazis in British prisoner camps, at the time the Nazis thought the taking of England would be easy game. Their lust for victory and their plans for treatment of conquered people made seasoned listeners ill. The young people who have been infected with the virus of Naziism and its kindred ideologies will suffer a grave shock when their "divine" rulers are ultimately defeated. More than this, the peoples of the occupied countries, who have been shocked and sickened daily by the sadistic behavior of their conquerors, will waste little time in liquidating both their Nazi oppressors and their native Quislings. It is horrible to contemplate what the combined disillusionment of the Nazis and the unleashed indignation of oppressed populations may mean in revolution and retaliatory destruction. This is one reason why those who have been less victimized, who have time and distance on their side, must share the special

obligation of building the constructive plans and ideas which even those who lust for vengeance will come to seek as true sanity and peace. This means special responsibility for those in the Western Hemisphere and, in particular, in the United States where we are still relatively untouched and unperverted by the rigors of actual warfare and the horrors of occupation.

In the early days of his defense activities Fiorello La Guardia spoke with deep feeling of his grave fear that we did not have enough people *thinking*. He said that he wished there could be groups of people assigned the task of thinking through the urgent plans and ideas that will be needed as events unfold. He reflected then an attitude on the part of American leaders that this time we are going to take our part in the development of world security. Would that we could undo our tragic withdrawal after the last war or, shall we say, after the Armistice of 1918, since that war never really ended. We are now pouring men, women, and money into the fight. We are growing more and more determined as a people that we shall pour men, women, and money into the curative period of peacemaking. And, as this determination grows, more and more of our leaders recognize that peace of the kind the sickened world needs is *not one to be declared on a given day. It will be a succession* of peaces—or steps toward world security—that will follow cessation of hostilities on various fronts That America is recognizing that the peacemaking as well as winning the war will be a struggle of years' duration is indicated by the number of groups and agencies concerned with postwar planning listed in Galloway's report for the Twentieth Century Fund. The tone of graduation addresses by prominent leaders, and of sermons of important churchmen, also indicates a determination this time we intend to be a moral as well as a military asset to the world.

The children and youth of a people are all the future it has. Were it not for the children being born everyday in the midst of world

travail, many would yield the fight. But the dream of building for our children a degree of security, peace, and freedom we have never realized ourselves is a great, compelling dream. It is part of the same vision that activated the small band who wrested the control of our own destiny from our rulers in the American Revolution. It is that dream and burning hope of a secure and peaceful land for its children that keeps Russia fighting better than it knows how, and with many times the efficiency indicated by its weapons and supplies. The children are the hope of the new world. Upon their health and strength, upon their tolerance and understanding, upon their insight and education shall have to be built a great new world. *They* must have priority in this prospectus of ideas and actions the planners are to build.

Before we come to specific items of a plan for children let us try to visualize realistically what is happening to children in the world, what kinds of reconstruction jobs we shall face. For our task would be a simple one if all new-born babies could be transported to Utopia and handled by wise and well adjusted adults. This is not the case. The tiniest of children are already marked by malnutrition, by maiming injuries, by a more deeply maiming terror and emotional upset, and by vicious propaganda in those nations that use the lie to pervert the mind from childhood on. If one but reads William White's *Journey for Margaret* the realization of deep emotional traumas comes so sharply that it hurts. Consider the task of reconstructing the emotional life of this tot White describes:

> There is, for instance, the little three year old girl on the upstairs floor who would scream if she saw me. Two weeks ago a bomb struck her home and killed her mother by her side. But she doesn't remember this, she only remembers the air raid warden who lifted the great beam under which she was lightly pinned, and which kept her from serious injury. And because her first glimpse was of this man, she has all men linked in her mind with the terrible noise and crash which took her mother away. In time and with skillful handling this will go, they hope, but now I hear

her playing happily on the upstairs floor, where the windows are so high she cannot even see men passing in the street.[1]

This child is in a country that is doing all it can to keep its children mentally and physically healthy—England. How many millions of little children have suffered this same tragic shock, and worse? How many of these are now receiving the gentle, understanding aid that Anna Freud is giving this bomb-shocked baby? Only a handful! Then read Phyllis Bottome's *London Pride* for a sensitive and intimate story of the distortions of child life under blitz. Here are children learning shrewdness, growing into delinquency, because there were slums and poverty before the war, and there is destructiveness on an unparalleled scale as part of the war. Here are the problems not only of escaping sheer physical annihilation, but also of maintaining some kind of family integrity and emotional security throughout. Seven-year-old Ben, wise far beyond his years, knows with the deep intuition of children who have lived in the streets that his nine-year-old neighbor, his partner in looting, his beloved playmate, must have a new family when her own is bombed to bits—must be taken in by his, burdened as it is.

If we can bear the sight, when we look at the children of the world we see the most distorted picture that the Devil himself in his blackest imagination could have conjured up. Children of Greece, Poland, China, and many other nations, starving. Those who do not die will bear the marks of rachitic bodies, poor digestive tracts, weakened organs, and the mental and emotional attitudes that go with physical weakness. They are the parents of the next generation. What children will they produce? And how will they feel about producing children? And what black hate are their parents building in their own selves and in their children? For there is no torture to a parent equal to that of seeing his children starve while he is helpless to do anything about it.

[1] William L. White, *Journey for Margaret* (New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1941), p. 67

Then there are the orphaned children—symbolized by the children of Lidice. Torn from parents by blitz or, worse, by the Gestapo; forced to know or to witness the torture and death of those beloved persons; subjected to ignominy, exactions, forced labor because of the accident of birth; deprived of normal play and normal education. This is the picture for millions upon millions of children. "Fixed in the drag of the world's heartbreak" as Carl Sandburg said about the last war.

But more even than these untold horrors children are experiencing directly, we must think of the adult world that surrounds them. What kind of a social order have we produced as the arena for child growth—what are we destroying and what must we build? The war itself is but a symptom of a great breakdown in our so-called civilized social order. The world has gone power mad; has let the machines of its own inventive genius destroy it; has institutionalized competition; has bargained with hatred and suspicion. Is this "social order"? Or is it social chaos expressing itself in war? Can the same inventive genius that built mammoth machines of destruction produce the moral and ethical ways of life that will harness the machine for creation of the good life? In a year which sounded the death knell of the old world—1929—Stuart Chase closed *Men and Machines* with this question:

> From our brains have sprung a billion horses, now running wild and almost certain sooner or later to run amuck. Where are the riders with their whirling ropes; where the lighthearted youths to mount, be thrown, and rise to mount again?[8]

Today, writing in the sober vein of a man assigned the great task of corralling ideas for the postwar world, Chase might edit his own question to read "stout-hearted" youths. Thirteen years later, after the most epochal thirteen years in our national history, Chase says:

> If you hold your ear close to the ground, you can hear a muffled roar

[8] Stuart Chase, *Men and Machines* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929), p. 348

echoing around the whole world. It does not come from bombs, or thunder on the Russian front. It is the voice of the people demanding security and an end to the paradox of plenty. It is the revolt of the masses asking for the food which farmers let rot on the ground or dump into the streams. . . . Science and invention have put an adequate standard of living within the reach of every family in the great industrial nations. Ultimately it will be within the reach of every family in the world. The mass of the people know this. Yet the standard of living which they might have does not come through to the great majority of them. Why does it not come through? . . . They are asking a revolutionary question which demands a revolutionary answer.[8]

In this neurotic period when power has come to stand for principle, and opportunism for morality, a power type of society has emerged. The fate of the single individual is of no more significance than the fate of a single drop of oil that eases the turning of the vast mechanical wheels. In this kind of social order, the power-ridden assume leadership. And, since long before Caesar, the power-ridden ambitious men have made bad leaders. Indeed there are thoughtful students who believe that Hitler's life is so unbalanced as to indicate insanity. If so, it is an insanity that compels the command of gigantic and bestial power; power that, sad to say, had not already been effectively leashed by sane and noble men.

Here it would be well to note the chapter on social change in *The World We Want to Live In,* a most stimulating report of the 1941 Institute of Human Relations of the National Conference of Christians and Jews. This chapter deals, among other things, with topics such as "hatred breeds disease," "hatreds beyond control," and points out in no uncertain terms that there are giant neuroses abroad in the world and that its reconstruction must be thought of as much in personality terms as in economic and physical rebuilding.

Lawrence K. Frank has often called our attention to the inter-

[8] Stuart Chase, *The Road We Are Traveling* (New York Twentieth Century Fund, 1942), pp 83-84.

locking effect of the individual's *private world* and the culture that surrounds him. He points out "that individuals mold the type of social order into which they are born, for it is all we offer them to learn, and then individuals turn back and they are molded by the products of their own personality distortions, greeds and deprivations, hostilities and resentments. It is this 'breathing in and out again' of venomous feelings that must somehow be replaced by the positive feelings of hope, trust, tolerance, cooperation, neighborliness, and affection. Our task, as Frank would say, is no less than the "interruption of our culture" and the shift of its damaging and destructive trends toward positive and constructive acts.

When we have convinced ourselves as a people that this is also one of the great fronts in this war, we shall start earnestly to seek in our community officers, in our representatives, in our teachers, preachers, and all who deal with youth, those personality attributes that make the individual capable of leading people toward the self-realization of democracy. We must find in our own people and in those of other countries with whom we link our thoughts and ideals for the future the individuals of good will; persons who have developed the "democratic conscience"; leaders whose hopes and aspirations find realization in the strength, welfare, liberated intelligence, and freedom of the "common man." This means that the masses of people, from infancy on, must have the kind of education that helps them to value such leadership; that teaches in living truth and action the great tenets of all religions—tenets that emphasize again and again the dignity of the human soul, whatever its outer cover may be. "Love thy neighbor" is indeed a monumental exhortation, for true love for another seeks to help him find his best self, and so to live in love and respect that he can freely give love and respect to others. Thus there is a deep moral and religious meaning in our commitment to democracy. And only as we approach our problems of defending and spreading democracy in the world with a spirit of religious dedication can we hope to do our part in the realization

of that great American dream of which "we were a part when that dream was born."[1] *American Song.*

Lieut. Col. Warren J. Clear, U.S.A., writing in the July 1942 *Reader's Digest* documents the fact that even the dreariest, most deadly, and horribly disgusting aspects of war can be borne because of something known as "spirit." Quoting him:

> Yet it was not in battle, but between battles, during the dreary, apprehensive intervals when the anxious mind can eat at the heart, that Bataan's defenders best showed the depth and strength of spirit of the American fighting man. Without books, magazines or letters from home, without the myriad aids civilization has developed to sustain the human spirit, they drew from within themselves the inspiration that strengthened their courage and steeled their arms . . . There were long discussions about religion . . . beneath the chaff and banter the listener felt that with these men religion was something real and definite and necessary, something to be kept beside one, something to be respected whether it was yours or the other fellow's

We wonder if these men, knowing that death was upon them, may have come nearer to a common belief in our way of life than most of us have ever experienced in our comfortable, ego-centered, little lives. Democracy is a great concept, parallel to the as-yet-unrealized religious ideals for which men and women have suffered and died. If we in the United States are to be worthy of winning this war and assisting in reconstruction, we shall have to have a rededication to the principles of selflessness, decency, respect for others, and the unfailing ideal "do unto others as you would have others do unto you."

If this has seemed a long introduction to the question of child care and education in a period of reconstruction, it is because we cannot separate child care and education from the entire fabric of the culture. What is happening to children in the war crisis, and what is happening to the adults around them, are conditions that willy-nilly

[1] Paul Engle, *American Song* (New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1934)

build deeply into the fiber of their thought and feeling. Specific plans for children in the postwar world must always be projected against this background; this deep submerged stem of uneradicable experience.

Now in moving toward some specific proposals let us state the issues in the form of questions:

Who should take leadership and who should participate in planning for child care and education?

Undoubtedly the United Nations should build together the broad outlines of the plan. In his notable Arlington address, Sumner Welles, speaking of the people, "the voices of the men who will make our victory possible," said:

> Finally, I believe they will demand that the United Nations become the nucleus of a world organization of the future to determine the final terms of a just, an honest and a durable peace to be entered into after the period of social and economic chaos which will come inevitably upon the termination of the present war, and after the completion of the initial and gigantic task of relief, of reconstruction and of rehabilitation which will confront the United Nations at the time of the Armistice.

Welles's speech was received with concurring applause indicating general acceptance of this obligation of the United Nations to take such leadership. From Wallace to Hoover leaders have expressed this idea. An international organization beginning with the United Nations should be formed now and should set up an international office of education and child welfare. Quite possibly exiles from occupied and perhaps from enemy nations who have indisputably proved both their loyalty to the program of the United Nations and their acceptability to their own people should share in the formulation of plans.

Should plans for the welfare and education of children include those of the enemy nations?

If we are to meet our moral obligations we shall have to plan for all of the children of all of the people of the world. The babies born in Germany and Japan have not willed the viciousness of the present leadership. Indeed it must be true that there are many of the older, simple folk in these nations who have no stomach for this war and are as eager to escape their oppressive leadership as are the people of the occupied countries We know the bitter fruits we harvested from the last war. People who could have been decent, fine, honor loving, sensitive, and artistic were turned on the rack of starvation and national indignity. Out of unemployment of restive youth, out of minds dulled by hunger arose Fascism, Nazism, and the other fanatic notions of the supreme state. Schairer tells us that 250,000 German children died of starvation in the six months after the 1918 Armistice when the winners were debating what to do about food. Only, he says, that quarter million children did not die —the bitter memory of their slow torture and death lived on in a half million parents whose hatred made them ready slaves of an institutionalized state hatred of democracy. It is laudable that Welles said, still speaking of the people, the people whose efforts will win the war:

> But I believe they will likewise wish to make certain that no element in any nation shall be forced to atone vicariously for crimes for which it is not responsible, and that no people shall be forced to look forward to endless years of want and of starvation.

Many people who have suffered the damnable tortures of Nazi and Japanese sadists will feel, no doubt, that dismemberment of Germany and Japan will be the only answer to the world's problem and they will clamor for retribution. History has taught us that this can lead only to fresh disaster. How will we reach through to the willingness of the good people in these nations, how will we get to the children to give them their birthright of freedom unless we demonstrate that democracy is a way of life worth espousing—that we act the way we talk? Dr. Meng of the China Institute, whose

people, mercy knows, have suffered horribly at the hands of the Japanese military forces, was asked what should be done about Japanese children and youth after the war. He said without a moment of doubt, "They must have the chance to know freedom and then they will want it and join with those who cherish and protect it."

Millions of children will be starving throughout Europe. What plans for feeding them should be made?

Food must be made available at once, immediately upon the cessation of hostilities. Reasons for this are obvious. It is not in our nature to let starvation go on a moment beyond the point at which we have the power to correct it. For the giant initial stage of hunger relief, the money must be derived equitably with the effort fairly distributed, hence from government sources, the nations sharing on some ability-to-pay basis. The food should be distributed, not by conquerors in uniform, but by international groups who have in common their concern for children. Therefore, we should be finding and preparing as far as possible the socially minded persons and organizations who can now be getting ready for the task ahead. Young leaders in medicine, public-health nursing, nutrition, sanitary engineering, anthropology, and the many needed fields should enlist now "for the duration" in seminars devoted to studies of world cultures and the problems involved in world relief.

We have learned through our long history of depression that there are ways and ways of giving. As Frank says, food will be so desperately needed in all the nations across the seas that those who give food will have a great opportunity to build receptive attitudes toward democracy. Always we must hold before us the realization that we give so that others may become strong and no longer need our gifts. If we give in order to bind people, we do a grave wrong. People do not want charity of the sort that asks the price of self-respect. Even little children resent the gift whose giver seeks gratitude. If, after the war, the food is given as superiors to inferiors, or

as the strong giving to the weak, or as the conqueror to the vanquished, that very food will generate a poison that will eventually destroy the giver as well as the receiver. We shall have to build in ourselves those attitudes that make us worthy to pass on to others the world's abundance of which we are custodians. As Gibran has said, "For in truth it is life that gives unto life while you, who deem yourself a giver, are but a witness."[5]

Surely the children of the world must be fed promptly and generous-heartedly. Health centers must be established where diseases and injuries may be cared for. Preventive measures must be instituted against child-affected epidemics. These children will have a hard enough time learning to be children, to play, to laugh, to trust others again. Without health, joy and laughter are never robust. Without joy and laughter democracy itself is lost.

What of child education in the postwar world?

The concept of freedom is a mockery if people do not know enough to make the succession of choices that keeps them free. "The truth shall make you free" and, we respectfully add, shall *keep* you free. This means, then, universal education. It means education of all of the children of all of the people. It means education that gives people as much of the truth as their minds will hold, and more than that, the techniques of getting at the truth. It means education that devotes itself to the important truths in this world. It is true that "flies walk on ceilings and straight up the walls."[6] It is also true, as Welles says, that "the world can readily produce what mankind requires." Schools the world over have been too much concerned with the little truths about the flies instead of the great truths that affect human destiny.

Education will have to shake itself free from caste, class, vested

[5] Kahlil Gibran, *The Prophet* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1924), p. 26.

[6] Dorothy Aldis, *Everything and Everything* (Verses for Children) (New York: Minton, Balch and Company, 1931). The poem quoted "Flies" is a delightful poem in a delightful collection.

interest, and propaganda control. Symbolic of this, perhaps, is the textbook. Even now we are busily rewriting or withdrawing books about Canadian and English history. The same event described in textbooks twenty miles apart with the unguarded line of Canada dividing the miles appears to be two different events. Textbooks currently in use in Germany and in German occupied countries are scandalous and scurrilous. Somehow or other through books, films, radio, and fluent exchange of teachers and students, we shall have to come eventually to share the same versions of the truth whether we be Negroes in Mississippi, Nipponese in Japan, French Canadians in Quebec, or farm boys in the Ukraine. Perhaps this is the millennium, but who ever moved in the direction of a vision who had not first dreamed the ultimate?

We will not achieve this universality of truth, however, until we have come nearer to a universal concept of morality. Where there is an undercurrent of moral principles people may be depended upon to arrive at relatively the same truths, especially in the ethical realm. We have seen this clearly in invention and in medical discoveries, in those cases where identical inventions and identical discoveries have occurred in remote parts of the world, without benefit of intercommunication. In the same way, when certain basic moral ideals are commonly accepted, people will arrive at relatively similar solutions and definitions.

But these basic ideals cannot permeate the world without universally free "common" education. It is fine to know that British commissions have already resolved that Britain's postwar education shall be for all of the children of all of the people. Let us resolve that all over the world there shall be the dawning of intellectual and moral literacy.

But is literacy enough? Aren't the Germans a highly literate people? Must we not shape the means of education to the ends we seek?

As I write the news comes that Tugwell has requested (and

Roosevelt has agreed) that the Puerto Ricans elect their next governor, an office hitherto filled by Presidential appointment. This is a most encouraging portent. For it recognizes another kind of literacy, the ability and the right to use the full democratic process of self-government. It is true that the Germans are a literate people. They can read words, spell, and compute figures. But they have not yet had the opportunity to learn the complex, exceedingly difficult arts of democratic living. This is the new literacy this world revolution must, and undoubtedly will, produce.

We, concerned with education in the United States, have still not produced that kind of literacy. Else, how could we place the sacred vestments of leadership upon the shoulders of men like Huey Long? Else, why should a mere fragment of the voting population concern itself with local, State, and national elections? Else, why should poll taxes, North and South, bar citizens from their constitutional right of franchise? Else, why should young men and women go from our high schools and colleges into jobs paying the wages of adults, but without adult conceptions of community-civic responsibilities? We must give an account of our stewardship as we stand in the glaring searchlight of this crisis. Have we taught our children, by the democratic processes, to have faith in, to revere, and to practise these democratic processes? Are we grown up enough to give full trust to the democratic way, knowing that its profound rightness leads always to the workable answer? Are our student governments real practice in full democracy or are they play acting at making those decisions that cannot have important consequences? If the fear that young people will make a wrong decision keeps them from the vital practice of making important decisions, then that fear must be wiped out, or democracy will die stillborn.

If this is true of us, the most democratic nation of the West, how true must it be when after this war, and during this war, hitherto subject peoples echo the "muffled roar" of which Stuart Chase spoke. And so, our trust of the Philippinos had its reward in the

magnificent battle they fought as our equals at Bataan. Our trust of Puerto Rico will bear the fruit of trust returned. For truly we get what we give. If we trust people to learn the democratic ways, and help in that learning, the learners will become full partners—whether it be in fighting to save democracy, or striving to deepen and spread its influence. As Julian Huxley said, on his recent visit, the thinking people of Britain know there must be no more "subject peoples" after this war. Human beings must be elevated to the dignity invested in them when we believe that "man was made in the image and likeness of God." Every man is entitled to education that will make it possible for him to share and protect his free, democratic heritage. This is the mandate for education, now and in the days when peace again prevails upon the earth.

Madame Chiang Kai-shek, writing in the May *Atlantic* shares our dream:

> While as a nation we are resolved that we will not tolerate foreign exploitation, we are equally determined that within our country there be no exploitation of any section of society by any other section or even by the state itself.
>
> From the base to the apex the political structure will be erected by the people themselves. Thus the rules and regulations of the new *hsien* system are much more than a mere step toward local self government. They are a political move forward in the direction of national democracy.
>
> It is my hope, therefore, that when victory is won we shall have learned the lesson that "the substance of wisdom is made out of the substance of folly," and profit thereby. Cannot we, in the new day whose dawn is nearing, strive together to gain supremacy in the practical arts of government and administration that will secure lasting happiness for the people of all races and thus create a world vitalized by new hopes and developing a more Christlike ideal?

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THE FUNCTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN POSTWAR RECONSTRUCTION

SIDNEY HOOK

The New York University Institute on Educational Reconstruction culminated in the session on higher education. In this session many of the principles that had been developed in the previous discussions were brought to bear upon the concrete problems of higher education in the United States, without neglecting objectives and proposals for coöperation with, and aid to, sister universities abroad. The discussion was lively throughout. Although varying emphases manifested themselves in the exchange of views, an impressive consensus on matters of fundamental orientation was established.

It was recognized at the outset that the universities of this country would more and more be drawn into the war effort, particularly in the preparation of special courses and personnel. It was pointed out that until now changes along these lines had, in the main, been initiated in order to fill technical needs of governmental services—which was not only natural but desirable. It was urged, however, that the present crisis imposed upon universities the necessity of a more basic reorientation in curricular emphasis. The probable duration of the war makes it very likely that the overwhelming majority of students in every level of college education will be called upon to perform military service. It is obvious that those who bear the chief brunt of the fighting should be aware of the profound moral issues involved in the struggle against Fascism. They should have a firm grasp not only of their existing stakes in the democratic order, but of its problems, its promises, its dangers. This requires that the philosophy of democracy must not be treated as a special topic in some conventional course, but should pervade the entire curriculum. Continuing stress should be placed upon the nature of the democratic process—its logic and ethics—as an integrating *rational*

faith, not merely as a pedagogical device to meet the war emergency but, from now on, as a permanent feature of our educational life.

One of the controlling assumptions of the entire discussion was the belief that the measures adopted to meet the pressing needs of the moment should in principle be such that they would enhance the quality of higher education after the war emergency was over. It was felt that institutions of higher learning, whenever feasible, should *begin* to do now what they hope to achieve later, particularly as far as the education of the *whole man and woman* was concerned. The indispensability of specialized training in our technological civilization was recognized. But, as several speakers pointed out, such training was inadequate and sometimes disastrous if the specialist could see no farther than his tools. Mastery of tools is not enough. Immobilization of interest in a narrow craft results in a kind of cultural illiteracy. Without a grasp of the wider historical and social conditions upon which the *responsible* and intelligent performance of his craft depends, the specialist cannot understand the world he lives in. He merely becomes polytechnous and regards social values and ends as completely extrinsic to his own work. He thinks of himself as a technician who can do his work equally well for a totalitarian taskmaster as for the democratic community. His tendency is to think of politics not as a field in which moral values operate, but as the business for specialized "ethicism" technicians; e.g., an architect who is only an architect, an engineer who is only an engineer has no sense of the social whole which determines, and is determined by, architecture, engineering, etc. Interested as we are in reconstruction, we must always appeal in concrete situations to the vocationally specialized. All the more reason is there for remembering that a specialization blind to the manifold interrelations that tie it into the fabric of social and cultural life cannot cooperate with vision and imaginative understanding in the tasks of national and international reconstruction.

The implications of education of the whole man and woman in

the modern world turned out to be far-reaching. Three general principles for curricula revision were suggested in the discussion of this problem.

1. It was pointed out that all specialized knowledge, particularly *applied* knowledge, was developed to gratify some need. Would it not be possible to formulate a set of *common needs,* material and ideal, and use them as touchstones of relevance and centers of integration and cooperation among various disciplines? Health, housing, schooling, meaningful work, artistic expression would be on the list of such needs. The national and international problems that grow out of the attempt to meet these needs adequately would become the points of convergent interest of the economist, engineer, artist, psychologist, and other specialists. In addition to his theoretical training, the specialist would find that the problems of application were set by the common needs of mankind. He would always be conscious of these needs, of their social contexts, the moral and social problems involved in ordering them, the political process by which differences in ordering them were negotiated, and the variety of knowledge and skills necessary to meet them adequately. Knowledge would be no less specialized but it would be more humane and wise. Professional education should reflect the enlightened social conscience of the modern democratic community.

2. The processes of education, on the college level as on every other level, should serve to develop and enrich personalities. Therefore it is necessary to make provision for the individuation of student programs so as to meet specific needs and talents. But no matter how "personality centered" the curriculum is, the world we live in makes it incumbent upon us to construct a prescribed common-core curriculum which will be devoted primarily to the study of the nature and problems of world civilization, thus educating for democratic world citizenship. Such a common-core curriculum would stress among other things:

a) The character and direction of the physical, technological,

economic, and social forces which are shaping the world of today and tomorrow.

b) The interdependence of world cultures, their common needs, and the best institutional devices for promoting peace and extending the spheres of cooperation.

c) The democratic ideals and processes that make for unity without uniformity, for *agreement*, or rational compromise among different interests, by uncoerced consent. The discussions with the common-core curriculum it was suggested that, as far as faculty teaching was concerned, it was desirable that a synthesis be achieved between the American and European university practice. The first had a system that made possible the presentation of common material; the second had a pattern of complete freedom which resulted in many books but not in a regularly presented subject matter for students.)

3. The context of the fundamental courses in the cultural and social sciences should be broadened so as to do justice to *inter-* or *multi-* national civilizations and traditions. Today the courses of study in every country of the world are overly nationalistic and sometimes chauvinistic. It is not only the geographical position of countries, e.g., India and China, which are important to us today but their religions and philosophies and economic history. Many pointed illustrations were given by various speakers of how narrowly nationalistic were the courses of study in American colleges. History is often taught as if it were synonymous with western European and American history. Discussions in economics overlook the tremendous diversity of economic problems throughout the world. Art courses show very limited appreciation of the creative works of different peoples. Courses in philosophy leave even the best students with next to no knowledge of the basic philosophical ideas of the East. We study the past of our *own* people in part to understand our present world. But if our present world, and particularly its future, is closely bound up with other countries, how can we adequately

understand our world without some relevant knowledge of the past of *other* peoples?

In this connection, eloquent protests were voiced against the tendency of some Americans to speak of the twentieth century as the century of American world civilization. This conception of benevolent cultural imperialism was declared to be incompatible with the democratic ideal of world citizenship. Some speakers traced the influence of this implicit nationalism in the organization of our war effort and deplored its consequences not only for winning the victory against Fascism, but for the future democratic world order. It was alleged that the United Nations were not yet truly united, and that the instruments of coördination between them, like the Joint War Boards and Combined Shipping Boards, were primarily British-American agencies. These points were tied up with the necessity of building up, through the educational process, a genuine and more effective conception of international coöperation. Programs improvised to meet an emergency even under slogans of unity reveal an educational cultural lag.

It was recognized that the task of higher education was not only to produce trained personnel but to develop leadership. Leadership was interpreted, however, as functional rather than natural. The democratic philosophy of education rejects the notion that some are born to lead and the rest to follow. The great variety of natural capacities should be a premise not for stratifying the population, but for the hope that, after proper education, every qualified person may achieve some type or kind of leadership in the situations and fields in which he is active. This hope can be realized by devising mechanisms for placing qualified persons in positions where they have a sphere of operation for their talents, recognizing their growth, and emphasizing not so much the privileges of leadership but its responsibility. Such education for leadership would also be a counterweight to "the cult of the leader" as well as to bureaucratic complacency.

Throughout the discussions, much was made of the fact that universities could not live as monastic communities secluded from the world even if they wanted to. The trail of gutted, destroyed, and *gleichgeschalt* universities which the Nazis left in their path was a grim reminder of this truth. But there should be a more explicit avowal of the responsibility of the academic community to the general community, in times of peace as well as war—a responsibility, however, which in no way curtailed the intellectual integrity of the scholar. It was recognized that, although they had no monopoly of vision, universities were naturally in the vanguard of the human quest for knowledge and truth, for they harbored outstanding capacities disciplined by long years of study and research. In the light of these considerations, many members of the conference independently evolved the idea that every university, as part of its normal activity, should set up a permanent division of qualified scholars to study and report on the problems of social change and control in their national and international sectors. It was believed that too much of our social action was *ad hoc*, hastily improvised to meet contingencies that could have been foreseen, intelligently discussed, and planned for. The educational and social benefits of such voluntary, coöperating centers of research, of their findings and publications, were adjudged by the conference to be enormous. Ways would be found of bringing the work of these divisions to the attention of government offices, of political bodies, and of the public. The participation of citizens in the processes of democratic government would be broadened. A whole body of relevant materials and proposals would be available to the entire community for intelligent discussion and decision of basic issues.

As much attention was given by the conference to practical problems of reconstruction as to underlying theoretical issues. The two were not at any point dissociated in the course of the discussion. A graphic picture was drawn of the martyrdom of the academic communities in the countries occupied by the Axis, of destruction to

plant and equipment, of persecution and terror against both faculty and student bodies. It was agreed that it was the duty of the universities in the free countries, especially in the United States, to extend to their sister institutions moral encouragement and material support; to make plans now for the reconstruction of their buildings and facilities as soon as the war is over; and to provide for an extensive system of exchanges and scholarships with foreign universities. At the same time, the practical problems on our own doorstep of making our universities more democratic, in fact as well as theory, were not neglected. Discrimination of racial and religious minorities was severely condemned; measures were discussed to aid students in military service to continue their education and to complete it after the war; the necessity of increasing faculty and student participation in educational activity was stressed.

The following is a summary of the practical proposals that emerged from the discussion as desirable steps in implementing our profession of democratic principles. It was urged:

1. That the institutions of higher education in free countries establish, wherever possible, contacts with their sister organizations in Axis-dominated countries; that widest publicity should be given to the terrorist methods of the Axis in throttling their freedom; that through radio broadcasts and other media word should be brought to overrun countries of our concern and our encouragement to freedom-loving colleagues

2. That preliminary measures now be taken to aid in the reconstruction of destroyed universities; that concrete ways should be found to help the victims of such destruction now; that scholarships and teaching posts, wherever possible, should be made available to those who have been uprooted

3. That racial and religious discrimination in our own institutions of higher learning be abolished

4. That wherever feasible the University establish contacts with students and graduates in the war-producing and fighting services

to aid them in continuing their education; that at the end of the war special efforts should be made to induce them to complete their educational training; that scholarships be provided to make this possible

5. That the National Government be requested to extend the system of educational exchanges now in vogue between the United States and South American countries, as soon as possible, to other countries as well

6. That the Institute and similar groups should begin to elaborate a "lease-lend" program of providing funds for rebuilding higher education where it has been destroyed

7. That the student bodies be drawn more directly into the discussion and planning of educational curricula and their intelligent participation in postwar reconstruction activities be encouraged

8. That universities set up seminars and divisions to consider peace and war aims and the problems of necessary change and social reconstruction

9. That the essential standards of academic freedom—freedom to learn, freedom to teach, freedom to publish—be upheld in all areas of inquiry and extended to all educational institutions.

10. That in carrying out the above proposals, the Government should make supplemental appropriations wherever the resources of the universities are not commensurate with the tasks

Only provision eight was adopted by a formal resolution, the text of which is appended:

Whereas the United States Committee on Educational Reconstruction intends to stimulate *work projects at the colleges and universities of the country*, in the form of seminars and similar groups, towards peace and war aims and the problems of necessary change and social adjustment in the postwar world; and

Whereas these studies should be conducted in an expert fashion, and under expert guidance in the respective fields of topical interest, so as to avoid glittering generalities; and

Whereas the schools of education, teachers colleges, and similar institutions should cooperate in the realization of such programs on the graduate and advanced undergraduate levels;

Therefore Be It Resolved That the United States Committee on Educational Reconstruction should be charged to gather material produced by the various study groups, seminars, discussion groups, etc., to sift such material and to make a digest of it, with a view to putting that material at the disposal of the governments concerned and of the International Education Office, the setting up of which was envisaged in a previous resolution adopted by this conference; to serve as pertinent information to ascertain the viewpoints of youth, and as a basis for such political and social action as would seem desirable and feasible to implement the expectations of the younger generation as regards postwar reconstruction.

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"There had been a heavy air raid on London. Our Prime Minister, Mr. Churchill, was walking amongst the smoking ruins of some houses when an old woman came up and greeted him. He asked how she felt after this night of horror. She replied: 'Well, there's one thing about these air raids, they do take your mind off the war.'" —Oliver Lyttelton, British Minister of Production, on a CBS broadcast, June 10, 1943

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of The Journal *may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send in at once to the editor of this department titles, and where possible descriptions, of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in fields of interest kindred to educational sociology.*

METROPOLITAN AREA COÖPERATIVE WORKSHOP PROJECT

During March and April of this year, eighty members of the staffs of twenty-eight school systems in the New York metropolitan area visited each other's schools and obtained, from questions and observations systematically used, information that will reveal the nature of the work done in these school systems. The purpose of the study is to get an overall picture of some of the finest schools in America, not as individual communities, but as a group. The picture will be drawn in four patterns: first, to show the educational setting for the growth of boys and girls; second, to show how teachers operate as observers and guides of the growth of boys and girls; third, to show how administrative and supervisory organization operates to assist teachers in building up a proper setting for the growth of children and youth and in obtaining information requisite to adequate observation and guidance of individual growth; and fourth, the physical plant and control and financial machinery in which this process goes forward.

This project is under the control of a council made up of the superintendents of these communities. It is carried on under the control of a Superintendents' Council and under the auspices of the Institute of Educational Research, Division of Structure and Organization of Teachers College, of which Paul R. Mort is executive officer.

It is the first attempt to build up a composite picture of the fine schools which make up the educational systems of the metropolitan area. The school systems coöperating in the project range from very small communities to very large ones. The communities represented, together with their representatives on the Superintendents' Council, are as follows

Communities	*Members of the Superintendents' Council*
Westchester County, N. Y.	
Ardsley	A. W. Silliman, Supervising Principal
Briarcliff Manor	O. I. Huddle, Supervising Principal
Brownville	Frederick H. Bair, Superintendent
New Rochelle	Herbert C. Clish, Superintendent
Rye—District No. 3	Clifford O. Pratt, Supervising Principal
Tarrytown	J. L. Thompson, Superintendent
White Plains	H. Claude Hardy, Superintendent, also, Harold J. Hollister, District Superintendent
Nassau County, N. Y.	
Sewanhaka High School	A. T. Stanforth, Principal
Garden City	Frank R. Wassung, Superintendent
Lawrence	Lawrence V. Dodd, Superintendent
Elmont	Abel Hansen, Supervising Principal
Queens County, N. Y.	
Forest Hills High School	Michael H. Tucey, Principal
Bergen County, N. J.	
Cliffside Park	George F. Hall, Supervising Principal
Englewood	Winton J. White, Superintendent
Glen Rock	Kenneth C. Coulter, Supervising Principal
Hasbrouck Heights	C. C. Hitchcock, Supervising Principal
Ridgewood	J. R. Somerville, Supervising Principal
Rutherford	Guy J. Hillelson, Supervising Principal
Tenafly	G. A. Kipp, Supervising Principal
Passaic County, N. J.	
Essex Fells	Mrs. Kathleen Tufts, Supervising Principal
Montclair	A. J. Threlkeld, Superintendent
Passaic County, N. J.	
Passaic	W. B. Spalding, Superintendent
Mountain View	Bert Bos, Supervising Principal
Union County, N. J.	
Cranford	Howard R. Best, Superintendent
Elizabeth	Roy E. Cheney, Superintendent
Hillside	A. G. Woodfield, Supervising Principal
Roselle	Joseph Bustard, Supervising Principal, also A. E. Johnson, County Superintendent
Connecticut	
Greenwich	Maynard W. Linn, Superintendent

AWARDS OF SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH COUNCIL FOR 1942–1943

Sixty-five awards, totaling $77,700, for the academic year 1942–1943, have been announced by the Social Science Research Council, 230 Park Avenue, New York. The awards provide for study and research in the fields of economics; political science; sociology; statistics; psychological, social, and economic history; cultural anthropology; social psychology; geography; and related disciplines.

Ten of the awards, carrying a basic stipend of from $1,800 to $2,500 for twelve months, plus travel allowance, cover postdoctoral research training fellowships to men and women under thirty-five years of age who possess the degree of Doctor of Philosophy or its equivalent. These fellowships are granted for the purpose of enlarging the research training and equipment of promising young social scientists through advanced study and field experience.

Fifteen appointments are predoctoral field fellowships, which carry a basic stipend of $1,800 for twelve months plus travel allowance. The recipients are graduate students under thirty years of age who have completed all the requirements for the doctorate except the thesis. The purpose of these awards is to supplement formal graduate study by opportunities for field work that will assure firsthand familiarity with the data of social science in the making.

The remaining forty awards are research grants-in-aid designed to assist mature scholars in the completion of research already well under way. These grants average about $400 and do not ordinarily exceed $1,000. Nine of these appointments were made through a special fund specifically granted for the purpose of assisting and encouraging the research of social-science faculties in the South. The objectives and requirements for eligibility are the same as those governing the national grants-in-aid, but applications are restricted to fourteen southern States.

Of the sixty-five appointments, three are for study in London and five for study in Central and South America.

The following list of awards, including institutional affiliations and subjects of studies, includes only those topics which have some interest in educational sociology:

1. *Postdoctoral Research Training Fellows in the Social Sciences*

Else Frenkel Brunswik, Ph.D., University of Vienna, Research Associate in Psychology, Institute of Child Welfare, University of California, for advanced academic training in sociology and anthropology.

Margaret Lantis, Ph D, University of California, Instructor in Anthropology, University of Minnesota, for academic training in sociology and a field study of selected areas of new settlement

Predoctoral Field Fellows in the Social Sciences

Robert Nathan Burr, History, University of Pennsylvania, for field training in Pan Americanism in Colombia

John Benton Gillingham, Social Psychology, University of Wisconsin, for field training with reference to "white-collar" employees in selected industrial organizations

John Landgard, Sociology, Harvard University, for field training in population growth in relation to its economic and social aspects.

Shotaro Frank Miyamoto, Sociology, University of Chicago, for field training in problems of the Japanese evacuation from the Pacific Coast

Erich Rosenthal, Sociology, University of Chicago, for field training in psychiatric methods with special emphasis on the psychology of the aged.

Philip Selznick, Sociology, Columbia University, for field training in the administrative procedures of the Tennessee Valley Authority

Melvin Martin Tumin, Sociology, Northwestern University, for field training in acculturation in Guatemala

Grant-in-Aid Appointees

Roger G Barker, Assistant Professor of Education, University of Illinois, for the completion of an investigation of the effects of severe, long-continued frustration upon behavior

Brewton Berry, Associate Professor of Sociology, University of Missouri, for the completion of a study on the Indians of Missouri, with special reference to the period 1673 1840

Robert Graham Caldwell, Assistant Professor of Sociology, University of Delaware, for the completion of a study of corporal punishment in Delaware.

Donald Clemmer, Senior Assistant Research Sociologist, Illinois State Prisons, Joliet, Illinois, for the completion of a study of gambling behavior

Rosalind Gould, Research Associate, The Bank Street Schools, New York City, for the completion of an experimental investigation of repression

Ernest R Hilgard, Professor of Psychology and Education, Stanford University, for the completion of a study of the social aspects of housing

Sister M Ione Hill, Instructor, School of Nursing, St Cloud Hospital, Minnesota, for the completion of a study of customs, traditions, and beliefs in the rearing, training, and development of the primitive Arapaho child

Homer L Hitt, Assistant Professor of Sociology, Louisiana State University, for the completion of a study of the impact of the war on the redistribution of population in Louisiana

Helen Block Lewis, Instructor in Psychology, Brooklyn College, for the completion of an experimental study of the role of the ego in temperature and temperature work.

Charles Price Loomis, Visiting Lecturer, Department of Social Relations, Harvard University, for the completion of a study of the social structure of Las Vegas, New Mexico, with its "Old Town" of Spanish American culture and its "New Town" of Anglo Americans.

"Some have spoken of the 'American Century.' I say that the century on which we are entering—the century which will come out of this war—can be and must be the century of the common man. Perhaps it will be America's opportunity to suggest the freedoms and duties by which the common man must live. Everywhere the common man must learn to build his own industries with his own hands in a practical fashion. Everywhere the common man must learn how to increase his productivity so that he and his children can eventually pay to the world community all that they have received. No nation will have the God-given right to exploit other nations. Older nations will have the privilege to help younger nations get started on the path to industrialization, but there must be neither military nor economic imperialism. The methods of the nineteenth century will not work in the people's century which is now about to begin. India, China, and Latin America have a tremendous stake in the people's century. As their masses learn to read and write, and as they become productive mechanics, their standard of living will double and redouble. Modern science, when devoted wholeheartedly to the general welfare, has in it potentialities of which we do not yet dream.

"When the time of peace comes, the citizen will again have a duty, the supreme duty of sacrificing the lesser interest for the greater interest of the general welfare. Those who write the peace must think of the whole world. There can be no privileged peoples. We ourselves in the United States are no more a master race than the Nazis. And we can not perpetuate economic warfare without planting the seeds of military warfare. We must use our power at the peace table to build an economic peace that is just, charitable and enduring."—Henry A. Wallace, Free World Association address, May 8, 1942

BOOK REVIEWS

Social and Economic Problems Arising Out of World War II; A Bibliography, compiled by DOROTHY CAMPBELL TOMPKINS. Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1941, 114 pages.

One of the perennial nightmares of social scientists in times of stress and emergency is caused by the difficulty of keeping up with the veritable flood of materials put out by governmental, semigovernmental, and private agencies. Miss Tompkins's bibliography, presented in classified form and listing nearly a thousand items, equipped with a serviceable index, is a distinct contribution to those who try to keep abreast. There is no annotation of the items listed; perhaps this would be asking too much. The price of $1.50 seems high for a planographed, paper-bound volume, but those who deal with the social sciences will either want their own copy or will want to know where one is available.

Problems of Post-War Reconstruction, edited by HENRY P. JORDAN. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1942, 292 pages.

The problem of postwar reconstruction has two aspects: first, the educational reconstruction and, second, the economic reconstruction and adjustment. These may be said to be two aspects of the same thing but, after all, in viewing the postwar world we have to look at each of these and, in planning, each has to have special consideration.

The book under review deals with the economic aspect of postwar reconstruction. The book is a symposium, and results from a seminar on postwar reconstruction problems, which was set up in the Graduate School of Arts and Science of New York University immediately after the outbreak of the war in Europe. Therefore, the chapters are contributed by specialists in the field and, as specialists, each has a major contribution; but inevitably the book lacks coherence, as would any book contributed by a group of specialists. However, this does not detract from the contribution or the value of the studies for those interested in or concerned with the problems treated.

The teacher vitally interested in educational problems on the postwar world will find this book of very great value.

War as a Social Institution, edited by JESSE D. CLARKSON and THOMAS C. COCHRAN. New York: Columbia University Press, 1941, xvii + 333 pages.

This book is a symposium in which twenty-one scholars approach the subject of war from five distinctly different positions. These points of view range from (1) the causes of war, (2) its strategy and tactics, (3) its effect upon the concept of neutrality, (4) its larger influence on social institutions, to (5) the implications of the present war for the United States of America.

The book suffers considerably from lack of synthesis and organization which is a danger of such collections. It does, however, present some valuable data upon war as a social institution. While it is not feasible to appraise each of the selections, the division dealing with America and the present war is perhaps the most significant. It is interesting to note, too, that this is the section which is perhaps the most philosophic and least related to research.

The sections dealing with the vast array of causal factors related to war shed little light, and when put together make little sense in interpreting the present world scene. If the book does one thing it impresses upon the reader the helplessness with which even the men of learning survey the present world debacle. Perhaps the most pressing need of the intellectual today is for some scholar to arise among us who can take our microscopic studies and put them into a configuration which will make sense and give a feeling of direction. Much more water may have to pass over and under the bridge before social change convinces us of the degree to which our sacred concepts of the past have become outmoded and makes us think in new channels.

How You Can Make Democracy Work, by EUGENE T. LIES. New York: The International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association, Association Press, 1942, 128 pages.

This book is an appeal for democratic action by every individual, beginning right in his own home community. It is an excellent overview for the layman who finds himself anxious to do something to make democracy work. The reader is introduced in pithy paragraphs to the essence of the democratic process; the concept of the community and his

relationships within it; the processes of community organization, over-organization, disorganization, and coordination (all in nine pages); as well as special community services, as physical maintenance, protection, education, libraries, welfare, government, recreation, youth programs, and defense.

In fact, the book covers in concise form the whole field of community development, organization, problems, and planning. It provides just the "common-sense" materials that community organization workers and school administrators wish to make available to board members and lay workers to help them comprehend the interrelationships of organizations, the total community problem, and the importance of intelligent, informed participation by all the people. It inspires and suggests action; in a community with trained, able leadership, it should be an important contribution in making democracy work.

The Crisis of Our Age, by Pitirim A. Sorokin. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1942, 338 pages.

There are three distinct systems of truth and knowledge, according to Professor Sorokin. The first, the ideational, finds its source of truth and value in revelation. The second, the sensate, is characterized by rejection of the supernatural and a dependence upon experiential knowledge. The third is a synthesis of the other two and is called the idealistic. Past civilizations have alternated from the ideational to the sensate, and have died when populations refused to accept the change as inevitable. Our present crisis is the result of the decadence of our sensate system which has emphasized the mechanistic and atomistic nature of man. The author's thesis is that we must change to a more ideational system. If we understand and accept the change we are destined for ever greater creativity, although of a different sort, but if we reject it our civilization must die and pass to the "morgue of history."

The author, apparently, is one of those who looks to a set of "natural laws" rather than to the social organization for an understanding of human behavior. This cycle is inevitable in the order of things, since each system carries with it the seed of its own destruction and there are no alternatives. Such were the arguments concerning the cyclical theory of history, the iron law of wages, the law of supply and demand, and Malthus's law of population.

Most sociologists will disagree with Sorokin on his major postulates because they see social phenomena from a different frame of reference. Most men have a faith in some values which they believe to be absolute. Students of Sumner, however, would be inclined to conceive these values as culturally determined and a result of reflected upon problems created by change rather than supersensory intuition. They would blame the present confusion concerning ultimate values to these social changes which have beset our culture. They prefer to look for a reintegration at some level which produces less conflict when we have assimilated these changes. Most of them are working with many organizations at the present time to help bring about this assimilation.

Philosophers from the earliest times have been trying to put the pieces of culture into an understandable pattern. It is not an unforgivable sin, then, if one with sociological background has his try. Dr. Sorokin goes outside his role as a scientist and becomes a philosopher prophet preacher. Like all prophets the world he sees is bad. Unlike the prophets of old, he has no aversion to using all the modern catch phrases and epithets he can muster in lambasting the contemporary false prophets (false according to Sorokin) who do not subscribe to his particular panacea. As a prophet he predicts doom for us unless we repent from our ways and turn to "a reenthronement of the real values it (our sensate culture) has discarded. Man must be conceived as "a bearer of absolute value," and "as such he is sacred"!

What the absolute values should be is not clear. Nazi Germany has become ultra-ideational—even to the extent of seeking supersensory guidance from Adolf Hitler's hallucinations. Few of us would care for that type of creativity—even though it possesses dynamic enough to conquer Europe. The author would have us repent of our sins and believe. Yet how can one believe when the nostrums sold even at the counter of a Harvard professor seem so foreign to rational thought.

Anyway, it is a challenging book and should be read by all

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Purpose To serve the public as a reference center on materials relating to the League of Nations and associated agencies, and in the general field of international organization and peace.

BACKGROUND AND ACTIVITIES

Mr. Raymond B. Fosdick provided the nucleus of the Library in 1929 when the collection of the League of Nations documents was turned over to the Foundation. The Library then became custodian of one of the few States Member Services for documents of the League of Nations, the Permanent Court of International Justice, the International Labour Organization, and the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation.

Around this collection, the Library has built up carefully selected reference materials in the field of international organization, peace, and foreign affairs. It now contains some 6,000 volumes which include the bound League documents, classified by their subject content. Recently the Library has about doubled its Wilsoniana collection and naturally feels that this material is one of its greatest assets.

The Library receives currently some 175 periodicals and news sheets. *The New York Times* clipping files date back to 1923 and are classified and filed under about 500 different headings.

The Commission to Study the Organization of Peace turned over its collection of postwar planning materials to the Library in January 1942. Since then the collection has been expanded and classified, and is constantly increasing. This special collection includes books, pamphlets, and periodicals from public and private agencies here and abroad, as well as reports from governments in exile. Periodical references to postwar planning from the beginning of the war to the present time are also included in the special postwar catalogue.

The Library welcomes visitors. The material is for reference use only, and cannot be taken from the Library. Visiting hours are from nine to five during the week, and nine to one on Saturdays. During July and August the Library is closed on Saturdays.

By special arrangement with the Library Committee, the Library may be used for group meetings in the late afternoon and evening.

The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL

Public education in the field of juvenile delinquency and crime prevention is largely a neglected function in American life today, but in the light of increasing rates of juvenile delinquency concomitant with war conditions, it is an increasingly important one. The only national agency specifically devoted to this field is the Society for the Prevention of Crime with whose cooperation the following materials have been prepared.

The Society for the Prevention of Crime was organized on May 14, 1877, and is this country's oldest crime-prevention organization. Its prominent organizers included Peter Cooper (founder of Cooper Union), David J. Whitney, D. B. St John Roosa, William P. Prentice, and George G. Wheelock.

The purpose of the Society was originally expressed as follows:

> There are few persons outside of the police authorities who are aware of the character and extent of the ways and means which lie at the foundation of all crime . . To counteract these vile influences and to banish them, as far as possible, from the community is the object of this Society

The early history and activities of the Society were in a field and of a nature quite different from its present purposes; the sixty-five years of its existence have been devoted to campaigns against crime

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of a more sensational and specific nature, in which criminological or sociological research played little or no part.

When Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst accepted a pulpit in The Fourth Avenue Presbyterian Church in New York City in 1880, he took an active interest in municipal and national affairs and in 1891 was elected President of the Society. He at once began a thorough survey of the "vice situation" in New York City, and his exceptionally vigorous campaign against police corruption and the forces that profited from its operation was characterized by many striking incidents. He preached a sermon, the echoes of which reverberated throughout the English-speaking world, denouncing the corruption of the Tammany government of the City. The effect of his pronouncements was cyclonic in New York. He was called before a Grand Jury, but his charges against the police and other officials were held not sustained. Undaunted, Dr. Parkhurst set to work anew to gather material for another inquiry. With detectives and by his own individual efforts and observations he began a tour of all the places of ill repute to which he could gain access, penetrating the notorious "Tenderloin" district to gather evidence of violations of the excise, antigambling, and social laws. The results of his inquiry were given to the public in another stirring sermon. He was again summoned before the Grand Jury, and this time he so convinced them of the correctness of his charges that the jury found indictments and a presentment charging the police with collecting blackmail in New York amounting to $7,000,000 a year.

A drastic shake-up followed in the Police Department. The reform fight went on; the clergyman remained firm in the face of a wave of denunciation from entrenched political and underworld forces. The Chamber of Commerce finally participated in the fight, adopting a resolution calling for a legislative investigation of the conditions disclosed by the Society. The Lexow Committee (created by the State legislature) was the result. The five volumes of evidence collected by this Committee are considered by many to be the best

composite representation of a metropolitan underworld ever made. In the face of these disclosures, Richard Croker, once famous as leader of Tammany Hall, quit.

For many years since that memorable inquiry the Society's activities were limited to local forays against specific criminal acts brought to its attention by the citizens of the City.

However, the Society more recently decided to devote its major energies to the field of juvenile and adolescent crime, believing that research into the causation of crime among youth and the sponsorship of legislative and administrative reforms will yield significant results in reducing criminality in these age groups.

In October 1940 Benjamin M. Day, former Commissioner of Immigration of the Port of New York, was elected President of the Society. In February 1941 Paul Blanshard, well known as lecturer, journalist, and author, and former Commissioner of Accounts of New York City, became its Executive Director; in the summer of that year, Edwin J. Lukas, a member of the New York bar for many years, became Research Associate, and, more recently, Associate Director. Among the Society's present governing Board of Directors are the following: Elliott R. Brown, Mrs. Yorke Allen, Viola W. Bernard, Eugene C. Carder, Daniel E. Costigan, Benjamin M. Day, Henry D. Frost, Jansen K. Hoornbeek, J. Edward Lumbard, Jr., Austin H. MacCormick, Douglas T. Newbold, Millard L. Robinson, Albert E. Roraback, John E. Scarff, William Jay Schieffelin, George H. Sibley, R. Emerson Swart, Walter N. Thayer, 3rd, Frederic M. Thrasher, Frederic Underwood, and Benjamin F. Wyland.

Three studies have been recently made by Mr. Blanshard and Mr. Lukas, and published by the Society: *The Adolescents' Court Problem* (September 1941, 67 pages), first of the series, affords a general picture of adolescent crime and its handling in New York City; *Probation and Psychiatric Care for Adolescent Offenders* (January 1942, 90 pages) covers the character of probation and psychiatric services given to adolescents in the then experimental Adolescents'

Court, the treatment afforded such adolescents in, [illegible], detention, and correctional institutions, the [illegible] during the [illegible] period, and the [illegible] handling adolescent girls. It presents a constructive program for the improvement of such services, and advocates a plan for the establishment of a city-wide court for adolescents. *A Community Court with Centralized Detention for Adolescent Offenders* (March 1942, 16 pages) was published as part of the effort to secure the [illegible] pretrial and presentence detention facilities for adolescent offenders in New York City. It offers a simple blueprint for improved detention in conjunction with a centralized Youth Court, advocating effective segregation and constructive recreation.

In the near future the Society hopes to publish a fourth study on the "Woman Offender," focusing upon the relationship between recidivist prostitution and mental deficiency or disorder, and offering a program directed toward the earlier discovery and more intensive training and treatment of offenders.

In addition to these activities the Society publishes monthly *Crime News and Feature Service*, available to and now utilized by newspapers throughout the country. Its editorial board is composed of nationally known scholars in the field of criminology, sociology, penology, and psychiatry. Articles and editorials on current crime situations, relating to the little understood (among the lay public) problem of crime causation, have been widely read through this medium of dissemination. Through research and education the Society hopes to focus attention and thinking on the problems of delinquency.

The Society also took an active part in procuring an amendment to the Federal statutes which now allow first offenders, who have satisfactory probation records, to be inducted into the Army.

The Society and THE JOURNAL are deeply indebted to Mr. Edwin J. Lukas for arranging with the authors for the preparation of the articles which appear on the following pages.

THE JUVENILE COURT IN WARTIME

GUSTAV L. SCHRAMM

As the trend from peace to war becomes more pronounced, we in the Juvenile Court will begin to observe some of the effects upon children. As yet there is no great change in our contacts, but in scattered instances we are becoming more aware of the deep implications of this world-shaking event upon individual human beings during their more impressionable years.

Even fairly well-adjusted youngsters feel the increased tensions. A young mother was telling me about her nine-year-old daughter who was listening with her to the radio broadcast of the first draft lottery. The mother suddenly became aware that her anxieties were being absorbed and magnified by the child as she vaguely realized how "Daddy" was involved in all of this new and strange procedure. With every one forced to make frequent, drastic readjustments, children already weakened or maladjusted are likely to need more help to meet their particular problems.

A case in point is that of a sixteen-year-old boy we shall identify as Saul. He received a serious head injury in a fall during infancy and has been highly nervous thereafter. He is a bright boy, and his academic achievements have been better than average. He is an avid reader of articles in the newspapers dealing with the international situation, and his devoutly Jewish household had been chagrined by his prediction that Hitler would defeat France. His father interpreted this prediction as pro-Nazi sympathy, which the boy denied. The situation grew increasingly tense. The arguments lasted for days. The eventual occupation of France heightened the conflict in the home. Finally, the father referred Saul to the Juvenile Court because the boy had got beyond his control. During these arguments, Saul threw a plate at his sister, a chair at his brother, and threatened his mother with a knife. It was realized after investiga-

social relationships, even in normal times, will be difficult for him. Arrangements were made with an uncle to give him carefully chosen employment in his business in another town. Saul has gone to live in his uncle's home where the atmosphere is not so tense, where he has a better chance to live through a period that might otherwise destroy him.

In another instance, an American citizen of Italian birth, who had served in the United States Army in World War I, complained that a sixteen-year-old boy had beaten him while his father held him. Investigation revealed a history of dissension between the two families, although both families were respected and got along satisfactorily with other neighbors. Much of the difficulty seemed to stem from a dislike of the complainant's nationality by his neighbor, a dislike that was heightened by Italy's participation in the war. This neighbor encouraged his sixteen-year-old son in his prejudice. The lad had called the man of Italian birth by the despised name of "Dago," and a crisis was reached when actual assault was made by the boy and his father on the complainant. Cases like this can never be treated lightly. Inflicting bodily injury has serious implications and may be followed by grave consequences. In time of war such a matter takes on additional importance, for our national unity must be guarded carefully.

In meeting such problems, it is not enough for the court to impose restraints. It is necessary to stimulate a wholesome, constructive recognition of the contributions of foreign culture that mothered us, of the need for united loyalty to the country where we live and work and belong. Regardless of the boat in which we or our ancestors came to this country, we are all now in the same boat and must pull together.

How is the juvenile court to accomplish this desirable adjustment in an adolescent boy? Surely not by having him appear in court in the presence of a room full of people and hear the judge say clo

quent on the subject, with emphasis on the dire consequences of any deviations. The court, like other human agencies, must keep in mind and in practice the way in which human beings are affected by each other. The guiding principle may be summed up in the words of Dr. Healy:

> What, more than anything else, has made all of us what we are in our behavior tendencies has been our life experiences in contacts with other people first in our family life and later outside. Our own studies of offenders show this clearly enough. Economic deprivations, bad environmental conditions in the physical sense, all count for little compared to what is built up through reactions of the individual to other persons. In terms of deeply felt frustrations, or hostilities, or of identifications with someone else through which suggestions of criminality are readily accepted, we discover the destructive forces which, active within the individual, tend to make criminal conduct. Any efficient reconstructive process must be based likewise on sound psychological principles.

A juvenile court has a unique opportunity to put such a principle into practice. I believe the juvenile court represents one of the greatest advances in human relationships under the law since the days of Magna Charta some seven centuries ago. In keeping with our own Declaration of Independence and Constitution of the United States, it embodies the significance and the dignity of the human being. It represents the sound, progressive thinking of our modern social life and may point the way for a more understanding and constructive treatment of adult behavior problems. In order for the philosophy of a juvenile court to reach the particular child in trouble, the way in which the court contact is handled is of the essence. It is not only what is said but what is done and how it is done that is important.

Of course, no stereotyped, formalized procedures would work for all courts and all children. Fortunately, the juvenile court is not rigidly circumscribed legally by form, but is broadly directed to inquire into the best interests of the child and the welfare of the state, and to shape its orders accordingly. This mandate allows the greatest flexibility possible under the law, enabling the court to

exercise its far-reaching powers on behalf of society as each case discloses the need of the particular child.

Thus juvenile courts are sharply distinguished from criminal courts. They have an entirely different origin and philosophy. Instead of utilizing ordeals or private vengeance as in an earlier period, society today through the criminal courts proceeds to try one of its accused members for a specific offense and to mete out appropriate punishment. In juvenile courts we have the modern adaptation of the old power of the English chancellor to act as *parens patriae* for the immature and helpless. There is no trial, no defendant, no sentence. Instead there is an inquiry by the court into the best interest of the child, and disposition varies as the needs of the child vary. At common law the application of criminal law did not begin until the age of seven. By modern legislation, in keeping with present-day standards of school attendance, labor practices, and social developments, the age has been raised until in about half of our States it is eighteen or over, though not exclusively that for all offenses. By careful adherence to the centuries-old philosophy of the parental responsibility of the state, the administration of the juvenile court, acting as a court of equity, can be kept free from confusion with the also old but distinctly different philosophy of the criminal courts.

In a judicial setup the public should be assured that fundamental rights of person, of family, of society itself will not be dealt with arbitrarily, bureaucratically, without fair hearing of all parties concerned, without opportunity for appeal to a higher tribunal for correction of palpable errors. The orderly development of the law over a long period of years both in England and in the United States has handed down to us a richness of human experience to be applied to our modern needs. In a democracy the judge who swears to see right and justice done to the lowly as well as to those of high estate, to the handicapped as well as to the more fortunately placed, to children as well as to adults has a position of great power. This rich heritage and power can be fully applied by the judge for the guidance of the

child and the protection of the community. No other governmental setup has such rich and profound possibilities for effective service to children in trouble.

Any disappointments with the progress of the juvenile court, therefore, are not traceable to the legal position and power of such tribunals, to their underlying philosophy and ideals, nor to their singularly advantageous heritage. Any shortcomings are traceable in part at least to the human element in their administration and to the degree of public understanding and support.

The year 1939 marked the fortieth anniversary of the first juvenile court in the United States. If life begins at forty the juvenile court is just coming into its own. Certainly any one really familiar with the administration of such courts throughout the country must be aware that we have only scratched the surface of their possibilities. With high ideals, with important goals of conserving the future of America, surely we who have the privilege of serving children should strive thoughtfully to put philosophy into living practice even "in every little thing we do," and especially in a time when conservation of human resources may be lost sight of in our more emphasized conservation of material resources for the war effort.

The case of sixteen-year-old Ruth may be useful in illustrating the opportunities of a juvenile court for constructive, personal contacts. Ruth is but one of an increasing number of girls who are being referred to the Juvenile Court as delinquent. The war situation contributed in making more difficult the solution of her problem, which arose from another cause. She is a refined, sensitive girl, of superior intelligence (I Q 130), who has been well reared in an atmosphere of culture in the home of adoptive parents. To all appearances the girl and her home life have been normal in all respects. Both the girl and the adoptive mother are deeply attached to the adoptive father. They have relied a good deal on his wisdom and judgment, and they have missed his companionship and affec-

tion since he has been recalled to the Navy as a reserve officer. During the adoptive father's absence, his wife revealed that Ruth had been adopted by them as a baby. The knowledge of her true status was a tremendous shock to this girl, coming as it did in late adolescence. She reacted by buying a supply of clothing on the adoptive mother's charge account, leaving town, and trying to establish a new life for herself in a housework job. After several weeks' absence, she was located by the police, whereupon she defiantly refused to go home and was referred to the Juvenile Court as a runaway.

As she was brought to the Detention Home, it was essential that the Court's initial contacts with her be made with great care. In the receiving department she was met by a trained nurse in uniform who set her at ease and without a lot of questions showed a quiet interest in her comfort and well-being. There was immediately a professional atmosphere apparent even to such a sensitive and emotionally upset child as Ruth. This atmosphere generated confidence.

The probation officer assigned to help Ruth began learning the girl's background as a clue to the girl herself and as a means to help the child. Both Ruth and her adoptive mother revealed a need for the adoptive father at this crisis in their relationship. The woman was stunned by Ruth's reaction to her revelation, did not know what to do about it, and wished for her husband's counsel. Ruth also felt that if the adoptive father were at home he could help and she would feel better.

The whole report of the probation officer was prepared and presented to me a day before the hearing, giving me an opportunity for unhurried reading and reflective consideration. On the day of the hearing, I talked the problem over with the probation officer in the courtroom and then invited Ruth's teacher and her pastor to come in and give me the benefit of their views.

Our courtroom is more like a judge's chambers, with a desk for the clerk, the stenographer, and myself, and six additional chairs. In such an informal, dignified setting, all of us are aware of the

seriousness of the occasion: a child's future is at stake. There is no incentive for pompous speeches, no chance for miserable embarrassment. After those working with me had discussed the matter with me, they were seated and Ruth's adoptive mother was asked to come in. Without her child or a general audience present, she could talk freely of her innermost feelings and thoughts. There was an earnestness to meet the needs of a loved one, a desire for help. As the mother went out of the courtroom, I went out through another door to sit down with Ruth in a small room off the courtroom.

There are no pictures on the walls, no furnishings except two or three chairs; here the child was without any distractions, without a feeling of being on exhibition, as might have been the case in a room full of people. There was not the embarrassment of hearing in a public setting about any shortcomings of her parents or of herself. There was not a heightening of insecurity, of not belonging, of a lack of personal significance. On the contrary, Ruth knew I was busy and yet was taking the time to sit down with her and discuss her problems with her. In a sense, there was, without the necessity of saying so, a belief developed on her part that people do care about her, that she does amount to something, that it is of importance not only to her but to others that she get along all right.

It was a delicate moment. Since she showed hesitation in expressing herself, I said to her, "When you go to see your doctor, you tell him what you know and feel, don't you?" With a quick smile she said, "Yes, of course." "It is the same with me, Ruth; if you tell us, we may be better able to help you." For a moment, I was on trial. She was looking me over. Could she trust me? If I pass that test, she will tell me what she has really hidden from others. We begin to establish a mutual basis of respect and consideration. Such a child in trouble needs a helping hand, so to speak, to walk upon firmer ground.

In Ruth's case, a child-guidance clinic has been asked to help the adoptive mother and the adoptive daughter to rebuild their relation-

ship. Through this means, Ruth is being aided to adjust herself to the reality of her true status. This process is still in progress. A false or harsh move anywhere along the line might complicate or destroy the possible adjustment.

In such private interviews with the child I do my best not to be soft or sentimental but to speak as one human being to another, with frankness, firmness, sincerity, and knowledge of the strong and the weak points of the situation. The child usually responds in kind to such an approach and desires to do his part, "to be a member of the team," to bring about a better situation for himself, for his family, and for the community. Even when the plan decided upon causes concern and anguish, the child will respond favorably if he is convinced of the essential fairness of it all.

We as judges should be most careful not to deliver ourselves of speeches on general virtues, not to wisecrack, nor to make people unnecessarily uncomfortable. Humility, in the sense of selflessness and devotion of all our energies to the real task at hand, makes us better judges.

The judge has the opportunity to marshal the best the community has to offer in the solution of a child's problem, giving strength, purpose, and direction to the future planning. He becomes to the child, as do others by his support and sanction, a haven of understanding, protection, and guidance. The judge, in short, has the opportunity to provide a ministry of justice that fulfills the philosophy and ideals of a juvenile court.

For Richard, the war also brought out the need for help. At the age of fourteen he was referred to the Court as a truant. He was a good-looking boy, polite and of pleasing personality. The probation officer described him as "appearing typical of everything that is wholesome and clean." Tests revealed normal intelligence. His home was clean but in bad repair; the family had moved into this home recently because the rent was cheap, due to its undesirable location. The father had died several years ago, leaving the mother

with the responsibility of rearing eight children; Richard was the sixth child. Richard frankly admitted his failure to attend school and his reason. The four oldest boys in the family were in the armed services. The only other boy at home besides Richard was a sixteen-year-old lad whose earnings of eleven dollars weekly provided the family's total income. Richard believed he should stop school and was looking for work to help in the support of his mother and two little sisters. His mother wanted him to finish school, but admitted the family sometimes did not have enough to eat.

Again with Richard the Court in its contacts attempted to recognize him as a human being with a real problem. Glaring at him and demanding arbitrarily that he "obey the law" would not have reached him. At our request, the Red Cross willingly undertook to try to make some adjustment of income. Richard is going back to school with his problem off his mind.

Sometimes the war situation has little connection with a child's delinquency but is offered as an excuse. An emotionally unstable adolescent girl involved in the past in sex delinquency was reported to the Juvenile Court by the USO and the Travelers Aid Society for loafing about the railroad station and the USO headquarters, obviously "on the make" for soldiers. The girl rationalized her behavior thus: "I only wanted to do something for my country. I felt sorry for the soldiers."

The war situation has resulted in having the Juvenile Court called upon for new services to boys who have been under its care.

The first of these new services involves young men who, in the past, have been brought to the Court's attention as delinquents and have done well on probation. Developing a spirit of patriotism, they volunteer for service to their country in the armed forces, and of course are asked by the recruiting officers if they have ever been arrested. Most of them are honest enough to admit that they have been, and then come to the Juvenile Court to ask if the Court will prevent their acceptance in service.

These boys come in with all sorts of anxieties. Their effort to enlist is usually the most important act in their lives to them. They have a sudden, graphic realization that an individual must face the consequences of his behavior. These lads are grave and serious.

At once the Court workers find the problem of human relationship. The boy wonders what kind of report the Juvenile Court will send to the recruiting officer concerning him. He may resent the Juvenile Court if he is not accepted. He may see the Juvenile Court as the impeding obstacle between him and his ambition to serve his country.

The boy's past troubles and his adjustment are discussed with him. The Court officer explains what report he will honestly be able to make to the recruiting office.

The large majority of these young men have been accepted by the armed services after discussion between Court workers and recruiting officers, and juvenile delinquencies are not being held against the boys if they have made a good adjustment after their trouble.

The other new service growing out of the war situation involves young men who have been sent home from the Army and Navy training centers as unsuited to service. Boys who have been Court wards in the past are being referred back to us by the Red Cross for whatever help we can give them. They are not only "rejected"; they are also dejected. They are embarrassed to meet their friends, to call former employers. They have a feeling of frustration. They are unhappy. They may revert to delinquency unless we can offer suggestions for constructive activity, particularly something tied in with the war effort.

Certain offenses have taken on a new significance as a result of the war situation and, correspondingly, children who commit them are presenting different problems than if they had been involved in such delinquency in the past. One such example is tire or auto stealing.

Previously, tire stealing was not uncommon to juvenile delinquents. In the past boys stole tires from auto-accessory stores or from cars, usually for the purpose of getting spending money. They stole tires as they stole tools, or coal, or scrap, or anything that could be turned into cash.

Today tire stealing is not only "stealing"; it is an unpatriotic act. The general public regards it more seriously than in the past and is disturbed when it occurs. Children themselves are aware of its added significance. Many who may not have hesitated in the past balk now. When a boy does resort to stealing tires, we usually find we are dealing with a child whose problem is more serious than the average.

Another example is that of situations involving social conflicts. Sectional and racial differences, which had been smoldering for years among students of one of the city's largest high schools, suddenly flared up and were reported in the newspapers as "near riots." Boys roamed the streets in groups, both for mutual protection and to waylay others. Several boys were beaten, and the gangs rapidly developed into two opposing mobs. Violence on a big scale was threatened, and the police were energetic in bringing in as many ringleaders as they could apprehend. The parents of those apprehended were personally interviewed and their assurances secured for the proper conduct of their boys for the period of the investigation. A joint statement was issued to the public by the superintendent of schools and myself to the effect that we, "together with a group of public-spirited citizens, are now engaged in making a thorough study of the problem in order to eliminate all evidence of friction in the community, so that there may be a united spirit as American citizens." Also, that "any unlawful acts specifically brought to the attention of the Court will be investigated to correct the behavior of those involved."

The committee met several times and aired the differences that had developed. Full cooperation was secured from each group in

recognition of the need of adjusting these differences in terms of national unity and fair play. At a special school assembly it was pointed out by school authorities that our enemies would probably be pleased with the disunity the students' behavior was promoting, and the lads were deeply impressed by this approach. A thorough investigation of each specific case of violence preceded Court hearings, which were conducted in the manner previously described. In this way we were given the opportunity of reaching directly all the boys involved. As two former antagonists sat with me in our little room, each came to recognize the other as a fellow human being, as a fellow American. They shook hands and reached an appreciation of each other. The parents reached a similar conclusion. It was a most heart-warming experience, pointing to possibilities of human approaches toward reconciliation of much greater differences, which in the old world are causing unhappiness and death to millions.

We in America must be sure there is no black-out of tolerance in our midst. Even when the acute stage has been reached it is possible to meet the danger. It is far better, of course, for the public to be on the alert and to see that prompt action is taken to meet early evidences of this un-American destructive spirit. We should bend every effort so that the experience of war will bring us all closer again, rather than tear us apart.

To conserve human resources as well as natural resources, to prepare for the future of America in keeping with its destiny, we who come in contact with children must hold fast to the essential verities of human relationship. Today we have an important share in our war program to keep for ourselves a free America and to deliver others from the enslavement of a dictator. But in the future it will be the job of today's children, who will be the citizens of the next generation, to keep America free. It is the responsibility of those of us who come in contact with children to treat them and their problems the way we would expect them to treat others later—to treat

them so that they will have realized from childhood the dignity and the significance of human beings.

The implications of a world war for the troubled children who will be tomorrow's citizens emphasize the fundamental soundness of the philosophy of the juvenile court. They are a challenge to the administration of the law, to its interpreters, and to the community.

Gustav L. Schramm is judge of the Juvenile Court of Allegheny County, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

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It is necessary that each community know the needs of its children and expend its maximum effort on their behalf. Volunteers should be enlisted and trained for service in clinics, playgrounds, settlement houses, and agencies of every kind, to the extent to which their services can be truly useful. This requires planning in every community. It also involves the return to a far more positive policy on the part of Federal agencies in respect to the mobilization of civilians to meet community needs.

Where additional appropriations are necessary, and the community, whether town or city, cannot meet the cost, the Federal Government has an interest and an obligation.

In a country fighting for its life and for its liberty, we do not fear to make vast expenditures to prepare and arm our men. Those expenditures are not comparable to the sacrifice in lives that our citizens must make day after day on the field of battle. The children of today will have to build the future on what our armed forces achieve in battle. They also will have to bear their part of the financial burdens that this war imposes. They have a right to be given every opportunity to start their task with maximum physical, emotional, and spiritual strength.

(Reprinted from an article by Judge Justine Wise Polier in the newspaper, *PM*, for September 22, 1942.)

WARTIME JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN ENGLAND AND SOME NOTES ON ENGLISH JUVENILE COURTS

MARGERY FRY

There has been a definite growth of juvenile delinquency in England and Wales during the three years of war. It is too soon yet to assign this increase to its exact causes; probably a multiplicity of factors are active: evacuations, absence of parents in war work, the upset of domestic life by "shelter nights," and, perhaps most of all, the general overexcitement, anxiety, and destructiveness of war mentality. The increase is, as has been said, grave. But the government is taking the best of all possible measures to meet it by the encouragement of all the agencies that care for the leisure-time welfare of children. From these Youth Councils we may hope for constructive educational work long after the stress of war years has ceased to claim its victims amongst the youth of our country.

The system of English courts is a constant surprise to the foreigner —even to the foreigner who is so closely related by cultural descent as the American. It is hard to tell whether their surprise is greater that England should be content to leave so large a share of the administration of justice to unpaid, untrained "justices of the peace," or that thousands of citizens should be found not only willing but eager to perform these duties. Perhaps the latter cause of astonishment may be diminished by the reflection that the love of even a little dignity and power is deepseated in human nature.

There are well over a thousand "courts of summary jurisdiction" —sometimes, most unfortunately, called "police courts" in England and Wales. For each of them there is a bench of justices, except for a few courts—those of London and of a small number of very large towns—where one paid "stipendiary" magistrate has the same power that two lay justices would possess, and sits to hear cases alone.

Appeals from these summary courts, and charges which are too grave for their jurisdictions are tried either at the Quarter Sessions of the justices for the whole county, or at Assizes before the regular judges who go round the country on circuit, hearing cases at the county towns. But in the case of a great number of the offenses for which the accused person has a right to trial before a judge and jury —"indictable offenses"—he may, if he desires it, be heard by the summary court without delay; actually in more than four out of five cases this is the choice he makes.

The justices are supplied by their clerks with the legal knowledge they cannot themselves claim, but in many cases one or another of them will himself be a lawyer; the chairman of the whole body for the county is so invariably. This system, so essentially English with its insistence on unpaid service and the participation of the private citizen in the work of government, is not one that could possibly be transplanted to another country. But it may be worth while to dwell upon some of the reasons, beyond that of mere antiquity, which would make us in England hesitate to change it for a completely professional one. For one thing, a cranky, ill-tempered, or prejudiced magistrate (and such are to be found in every country!) does much less harm as one of a group than if he were sitting alone with no one to debate his decisions; "two heads are better than one, even if they be but sheep" runs the old proverb.

For another the benches, though still too apt to be the preserve of the district notables, are becoming more and more representative of the whole people. The appointments of women and of "labor" justices have, since the last war, done much to widen their understanding of the more human interests involved in their work. It may be counted, moreover, as much in the interest of a sound administration of justice that so many thousands of ordinary citizens are in constant touch with its problems and its routine. Some three thousand of the magistrates belong to a voluntary association that exists to further the efficiency of the courts and that exercises a very dis-

tinct influence in proposing new legislation and discussing methods of treatment of offenders, the control of liquor licenses, and other matters within their jurisdiction. They are particularly eager about questions of juvenile delinquency and probation.

It is perhaps in the children's courts that the advantages of the system of lay justices show most. Two or three sit together, except in London (where two women can make a court), one must be a man, one "as far as practicable" a woman. The representation of the points of view of the two sexes is an advantage. Often a woman will take the lead in dealing with girls or young children, a man will deal with the older boys. But the bench will always act together in its final decisions.

To an American the procedure in these courts will seem rather formal. Whether the case is a truancy one, a charge of committing an offense, or an attempt to prove that a child is beyond control or needs care or protection, the methods of proof, though not necessarily the forms of words used, are as rigid as in the adult courts. No report must be made by the Probation Officer before the case has been heard; no secondhand evidence is allowed; unless the child, on the advice of his parents, chooses to give evidence on his own default he is not sworn, nor can he be asked any incriminating questions. Of course, a great many children cheerfully admit their offense at once. They usually show great exactness and anxiety to have the matter put quite rightly. "No, I 'ad the knives and the pens and Billy 'e only 'ad one knife" is the sort of eager correction they proffer.

Children rarely seem abashed by the court. "Young persons"—between fourteen and seventeen—are much more conscious of embarrassment. One cheerful creature, a care or protection case, brought her skipping rope into my court, and gaily skipped whilst her future was being decided. A little boy, writing his first letter from the country to the probation officer, filled the paper with rows of "kisses" with the inscription "some for the magistrates." When

the actual decision is arrived at (conviction is a word not used in the juvenile court), the procedure followed resembles closely that of the American courts. There is frequently a remand for medical and psychological enquiry, there are anxious conferences with the probation officer, and with the parents, and the real work of caring for the child begins. Periodically the probation officers meet the justices, giving them details of how the cases are progressing, of those of their charges who have finished their time of probation, and so forth. These conferences are of great help to both sides.

Margery Fry is former chairman of one of London's juvenile courts and is widely known as a writer and speaker on delinquency and penal reform. Miss Fry has been a recent visitor to the United States, where she addressed a conference of the National Probation Association in New Orleans. She made the trip to this country in a small boat, once a German vessel.

The wartime rise in juvenile delinquency is not confined to New York City. J. Edgar Hoover, chief of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, reported yesterday that delinquency everywhere was "mounting rapidly, and unless we all do our jobs better we can expect another era of lawlessness such as swept the country after the last war."

Hoover's report was read by Hugh Clegg, assistant director of the FBI, at the 49th annual convention of the International Association of Chief of Police at the Hotel Pennsylvania.

(Reprinted from the newspaper, *PM*, for September 22, 1942.)

COPING WITH WARTIME DELINQUENCY

ELEANOR T. GLUECK

There seems to be no need at this time to press home the fact that juvenile delinquency has been increasing since Pearl Harbor. On every hand evidence to this effect is pouring in. For example, commitments to the Massachusetts State correctional schools are on the increase. At the Shirley School in February 1942, there were two and one third times as many boys committed as in the same month in 1941; one and one half times as many boys were committed to the Lyman School during that particular month, and a little more than twice as many girls were sent to the Lancaster School. These schools are full to overflowing, a condition that has not existed for some years, and the same is true of the Massachusetts State reformatories. Other evidences of increasing delinquency are cited on some recent findings concerning runaways made by the Travelers Aid Society of Boston, who report that there were twice as many runaways in January and February 1942 as in the corresponding months a year ago; while in March 1942 there were three times the number of runaways as in the corresponding month of 1941. From a report just completed by the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and the Massachusetts Child Council, of families who are under S.P.C.C. supervision, it is evident that there is an increase in delinquency from 14.8 per cent among all families handled in 1941 to 22.6 per cent in the group of families recently studied in which the children were left without parental supervision.

An increase in crimes among boys in the Felony Court in New York City has recently been noted and Magistrate Morris Rothenberg has commented that, "There seems to be a crime wave of young boys. Last week there was a number of youthful defendants in our court charged with serious crimes. Some of these boys have been in the Children's Court. This is not just accidental. A serious investigation

should be made by the police."[1] From Los Angeles comes a report that "rumors in Los Angeles high school boys today are committing acts of violence against fellow students and adults to an extent never reached before. Many more criminal complaints are being filed against offenders. The juvenile delinquency trend under wartime conditions has been more pronounced."[2]

Recently the United States Children's Bureau, in preparation for the meeting of the *Commission on Children in Wartime*, made a compilation and presented the records for 50 courts located in various parts of the United States, accompanying these with statistics of the population served. An increase in juvenile delinquency cases was reported by 32 courts and a decrease by 8 courts. In the 22 courts that reported increases in delinquency cases the increases ranged from 2 to 110; in 11 of these the increase was 50 per cent or more. Although it is probable that there are sudden explosive trends in these apparent increases than wartime [illegible], the report should be accepted as a significant fact that [illegible] account for all of the increase.[3]

The problem is [illegible] and whether we can stem it will depend [illegible] understanding of the causes of the rise, and [illegible] Unless we can marshal *effectively* we can marshal community [illegible] the anti-sociality that flourishes on [illegible]

The [illegible] paralleling that in England where [illegible] number of children under 14 convicted [illegible] 50 per cent longer than in the previous year. Although [illegible] juvenile crime vary in different parts [illegible] the general, and exact estimates are impossible, there [illegible] the trend is upward.

[1] [illegible] Blanchard, superintendent of the [illegible]

[2] [illegible] Wartime Conditions [illegible]

It is also being evidenced from sporadic and informal reports of child-guidance clinics and juvenile courts that there is more frequency in the commission of offenses among children who had already been delinquent before the war started and that their offenses are growing in seriousness. Whether or not a reduction is being noted in delinquency among children of normal mentality, as is the case in Great Britain, and a large increase in delinquency among those of subnormal mentality, remains to be seen.[4] But if, in our program planning, we are to profit from Britain's experience, this possibility must be borne in mind.

Although we have much to learn from what Britain has done and is doing to cope with the rising tide of juvenile crime,[5] we must remember that conditions in our two countries are quite different. Theirs is a small and homogeneous population, ours vast and heterogeneous. Theirs is a more coordinated and centralized approach to the handling of welfare problems. Their delinquency-treatment program is stimulated by the Home Office. We have to struggle for coördinated effort against the tangled web of public and private, town, country, municipal, State, and Federal authority in which there is no guiding force to integrate our action in this field.

There is, for these reasons, no particular need to describe in any detail British methods of handling the rising tide of juvenile crime; but it would be well to review the apparent causes of increasing delinquency in Britain, that we may better understand how to cope with the situation that faces us here.

First of all, it is pointed out by British social workers that the pattern of wartime delinquency is the same as of prewar delinquency, because a like background of underprivilege that characterized the delinquents of prewar days would describe that of wartime delinquents. There are more of them, however, because the

[4] Eileen Younghusband, "Delinquency in Wartime," *Social Work* (published by the Council of the Charity Organisation Society, London), October 1941, p. 59.

[5] For some details of British handling of wartime delinquency, *see* Herman L. Glueck, "Delinquency in Wartime," *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, July–August 1942.

pressure of life under wartime conditions overcomes the resistance capacity of an increasing number of youngsters and they break down into antisocial behavior. "The war," says a British social worker, "has contributed in a variety of ways to the worsening of the family situation. The most obvious of these is the calling up of the father and the evacuation or war work of the mother." Another major contributory factor to the rise in juvenile delinquency stems from the increasing complications of life in wartime. "Working hours are longer, shopping is much more difficult, the mass of official regulations grows more tortuous. At the same time, life is more restricted and the outlets for pleasure and amusement grow less."

Another factor in the British situation, which social workers there have considered contributory to greater delinquency among juveniles, stems from the high wages paid to young people. It is no uncommon thing, they point out, to find boys earning more than their fathers, working exceedingly long hours in exhausting occupations, having plenty of spending money, and yet stealing. "The normal desire for adventure may have something to do with it, enhanced by the general atmosphere of reckless living induced by the war." It has been found in Britain, too, that adolescents are tempted to change their jobs frequently because there is an opportunity to earn more money. Many of them have given up good jobs of a reasonably permanent nature to earn more money in less skilled occupations that can lead only to unemployment after the war. It is also pointed out that some of these youths do not work the full week, taking days off whenever they feel like it because they earn as much in a few days as they could have earned in a week before, and often get into serious difficulties during their leisure time.

Not only the general tensions of life in a warring country, the increasing lack of parental supervision, and reckless living due to higher wages but also, more specifically, life for young people in air-raid shelters has contributed to the increasing crime rate. English social workers report that shelters have provided a fertile soil for the

formation of gangs and that in winter they have acted as a substitute for the cheap café and have provided universally available free lodging for boys and girls who ran away from homes or institutions. There is plenty of evidence that bad associations contracted in shelters resulted in serious involvements with experienced criminals.[6]

Not only the dangers to young people created by haphazard life in bomb shelters, but also evacuations and blackouts are among the major causes of the rise in juvenile crime in Britain. The uprooting of children has played not a little part in the increase in juvenile crime. This took place on a large scale without much consideration for the emotional effects of separation from parents and transplantation into utterly strange environments, often without the needed help and understanding of social workers (partly because this need was not recognized early in the war and secondly because there were not enough social workers to do the job adequately).

In regard to blackouts, the increasing opportunities for the commission of crimes, particularly assaults, lootings, burglaries, and robberies, is self-evident. "Blackout," says a British social worker, "has made its contribution to delinquency among adolescents by increasing the temptation and making the difficulty of detection greater."[7]

Here then we have some of the major factors contributing to increasing delinquency in Britain, all of which we must bear in mind when planning our local programs.

Although I am not detailing Britain's method of handling wartime delinquency for reasons already indicated, I am, in presenting some suggestions for coping with the rising tide of juvenile crime in this country, bearing in mind the general principles underlying Britain's approach to this problem.

What direction should our program planning take?

First of all, we must bear in mind the fact that basically the need

[6] Younghusband, *op. cit.*, p. 58, and *Social Work*, "The Effect of the War on Adolescent Delinquency," Reginald A. Pestell, October 1941, p. 63.
[7] Pestell, *op. cit.*, p. 65.

appears to be to keep to a minimum the tensions and insecurities of the stressful times in which children are now living. Therefore, any efforts toward improving their home conditions and their environment in work and play must be of concern. Particularly our attention must be directed toward children living in areas of underprivilege, for it is among them that resistance levels will soon be tapped by the added pressures of the wartime situation and will result in maladaptation. There can be no question, for example, that it is of the utmost importance to preserve all the welfare services that have been built up over the years. We must not permit ourselves (as was done in Britain at the beginning of the war) to indulge in false economy by restricting those very activities that are necessary to the wholesome development of youth. We hope that we will not see much of the kind of unwise saving of public funds which is taking place in New York where the Juvenile Aid Bureau, for twelve years the police department's principal crime preventive agency, had its budget drastically curtailed on July 1, at least for the duration of the war.

The social services that must be preserved or expanded include not only recreational services but any that make possible a richer life for children: health services, mental hygiene, vocational guidance, services to disintegrating and broken families, adequate relief to those who are unable to earn a minimum for the maintenance of decent homes, housing programs, and all the other social services that are so essential to the maintenance of morale

Although it cannot be emphasized too strongly that all welfare services to children have to be preserved and strengthened, we must particularly concentrate our attention toward absorbing the energies of youth, first in the direction of activities that will preserve health and morale, and secondly toward recreational activities *which are directly related to the war effort*. We must avoid the tragic mistake that was made in Britain in the early months of the war when so many of the not too extensive recreational activities were curtailed,

partly because the need for them was not recognized, but also because, following upsets due to the blackouts and evacuations, it was difficult to reestablish them.

As regards the preservation of the physical health of youngsters, we have already taken to heart the lesson revealed by the large proportion of draft rejectees who were found to be suffering from nutritional defects. We could not have had a more dramatic index of the need for strengthening the health of young people than has come to us so forcefully in this way. And toward the preservation of mental health, there is a definite need for the expansion of all types of mental-hygiene work in schools, guidance clinics, juvenile courts, day nurseries, and the many other agencies and organizations that deal with children. Such services must for the sake of the welfare of children be extended also to parents, many of whom are already suffering from the stresses and strains of wartime uncertainties and whose moods and insecurities must necessarily reflect themselves in the behavior of children.

In regard to the absorption of the leisure-time energies of youth in the direction of activities related to the war effort we can, of course, learn much from British experience. Already in this country there are innumerable signs that there is recognition of this need. For example, the Massachusetts State Committee on Public Safety is enlisting the services of 50,000 youths who will be trained to carry on the work of messengers and couriers during emergencies

Among the activities which young people in Britain between the ages of eleven and eighteen have been carrying on so successfully under the sponsorship of the National Youth Committee are collection of all kinds of waste, clerical help to A.R.P. authorities, helping in assembling gas masks and boxes, messenger service for police and A.R.P. authorities in the daytime and during blackouts, helping in summer vacations with the harvests, serving as fire watchers, digging trenches and gun emplacements, filling sandbags, collecting waste paper, collecting books, games, etc., for hospitals and camps

cleaning shelters and first-aid posts, entertaining and supervising evacué children, addressing envelopes, killing pests and vermin on farms, collecting kitchen waste for feeding farm stock, painting curbstones white, cultivating allotment gardens, keeping pigs and poultry, acting as reliefs in village services and shops after all-night raids in order to give some rest to the regular staff; delivering milk and newspapers, collecting and chopping wood for fuel; selling and buying war savings stamps.[8]

In this country Boy Scouts, Y.M.C.A. units, boys' clubs, and other organized groups of youngsters are volunteering for similar work. There is no question that most youngsters respond enthusiastically to such calls for service. And we must expand such activities as much as possible.

By and large, the *need is to make young people feel that they have a stake in the total war effort* and that destructive activity militates against the successful termination of the war. If we accomplish this, we will prevent a certain amount of selfish depredation in which impulsive and suggestible youngsters would naturally indulge, in the face of the many opportunities that present themselves during a period of severe crisis. If we can strengthen children to resist such temptations by giving them a real and not a superficial understanding of why the war is being fought and their stake in it for the future, we should succeed in keeping antisocial activity to a minimum.

Profiting further from British experience, we must be on the alert to guard the welfare of young people who are leaving school to enter gainful employment. They, like British youth, are or will be receiving high wages, will perhaps not work regularly because in a few days they can make as much as they ordinarily would in a week, and will be less inclined to accept parental discipline than formerly. We may expect that some of them who would not otherwise have joined the ranks of delinquents will now do so. Easy money, easy spending, many temptations, desire for adventure and excitement

[8] Information from the British Press Service, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City

will add to the mounting toll of juvenile crime. Some provision, therefore, for special attention to this group of young people must be provided. In Britain it was suggested in this connection that legislation be introduced compelling employers to pay wages up to a certain level in cash and the rest in National Savings Certificates*

And further, borrowing from British experience, we must be particularly on the alert, it seems to me, to provide suitable recreation and supervision to children of *subnormal mentality*. From their ranks we may expect the greatest increase in juvenile delinquency. As so many of these children are of the underprivileged group, we are faced with the problem of providing substitute parental care in situations where both parents are now working in defense industries and possibly where one or both parents have actually gone to another community to work. Already some of the social agencies are beginning to report that more children are being left without proper supervision than heretofore.

In connection with child-supervisory programs we must recognize the growing difficulties of finding suitable foster homes for neglected, dependent, and delinquent children. Foster parents are finding it more profitable to engage in defense industries than to accept children into their homes for very small pay. It may be that during the period of war emergency it will be necessary to establish small boarding homes or institutions under expert and full-time supervision to replace foster-home care.

There is another aspect of wartime delinquency control which is particularly worthy of our attention; this has to do with protective work among young girls, with the control of prostitution, and with the prevention of the spread of venereal infection among youth Thus far, interest is more readily aroused in this aspect of crime control than in any other phase, possibly because the spread of venereal infection is such a very understandable menace, and the exposure of young girls to sex vice arouses our protective impulses. It is not my

* London *Herald Tribune*, December 2, 1941

purpose here to describe the activities that are being initiated by the public-health authorities, social-hygiene societies, and the United Service Organizations in the control of these problems. Innumerable communities are providing recreational facilities for soldiers, sailors, and youths concentrated in defense industry areas. Legislation has been passed making prostitution a Federal offense within prescribed limits around camps and defense industries (H.R. 2475) and a varying amount of effort is being exerted in areas around encampments to keep away suggestible and attention-seeking young girls, who though not prostitutes are nevertheless hunting for the excitement of contact with soldiers and sailors.

But even in this direction only a bare beginning has been made. Furthermore, it needs to be stressed that by and large these programs are "soldier-centered" rather than directed toward the welfare of girls. Unless a concerted effort and powerful attack is made on this aspect of crime control, a great toll will be paid in illegitimate pregnancies, venereal disease, and, most important of all, in a general lowering of the moral tone of youth. Plans need to be worked out for the adequate protection of girls and boys from the temptations to self-indulgence which are so numerous in these days of excitement and stress; and every possible educational and spiritual resource must be utilized to build up their resistance to such harmful self-expression. It is also essential that parents be made to realize the hazards to which their youngsters are exposed, to interpret to them, on whatever intellectual level they can best understand, the needs of youngsters for attention, adventure, security, and to suggest to them how suitable outlets for the instinctual urges of young people can be provided.

Now, in regard to two aspects of the control of juvenile delinquency that are entirely unique to total war: one, dimouts; two, bombing. Coastal blackouts have forcefully brought to us the need for adequate policing to protect the public from the depredations of those who are quick to take advantage of the anonymity provided

by darkness, but more especially to reduce the temptations and opportunities for youngsters to indulge in sex delinquency and theft.

This raises the whole problem of adequate policing, now enhanced by the coastal blackouts. In normal times, it is not too easy to convince police officials that they have a very real place in crime-prevention programs. Now, however, the need for their services becomes urgent. Trouble of a serious nature may well be expected during prolonged periods of blackout as has been the case in Britain. As yet we have only been playing the game of blackout but it probably will not be long before, in our coastal cities and towns at least, we will have long continued dimouts when vandalism and sexual excesses will grow rife. Only adequate patrol work by well-trained men and women will prevent the kind of depredations that have occurred in Britain. However, the police (both men and women) have an even more important function to perform and that is to know, watch, and refer to the proper authorities all children in their communities who are beginning to show any signs of delinquent conduct. The neighborhood policeman or woman is likely to be well acquainted with youngsters and must now more than ever play a part in any community organization for crime control.

If bombings and shelter life become realities, those of us who are interested in juvenile crime control must give our attention to the protection of children from nervous tensions and from the unwholesome companionships and influences that have been found present in British shelters. We have had some hint of what would be likely to happen if we did not give adequate supervision to children in shelters and provide wholesome recreation for them. We can also foresee the dislocations that would occur in their lives were they to be evacuated from their homes.

There is another suggestion from wartime Britain by which we might profit in making plans for the treatment of those children who become delinquent under wartime pressures: that is by the

setting up of semimilitary camps for juvenile offenders, where they would be paid a nominal sum. At a suitable age they can be drafted as soldiers sufficiently trained for the Army.[10] I am not aware that this plan has actually as yet been carried out in Britain but it seems to me that it has very real possibilities in certain cases.[11] At any rate the idea is worth experimenting with, for with the increasing shortages in trained personnel in the courts, probation services, institutions, parole departments, and so on, there will be need for devising other methods of supervision, preferably directly related to the defense effort.

There are undoubtedly many other considerations to which attention would have to be given in any well-rounded program of controlling delinquency in wartime and it is not possible here to describe them all. The most evident need, and one that educators, social workers, psychiatrists, and other youth guides should be most deeply concerned about, is in *centering in some one group* the responsibility for stimulating, working out, and coordinating the necessary preventive programs. I do not know whether there should be any Federal direction of this program but whatever public and private organizations already exist or might be set up for this specific purpose should have a *State-wide function*. Regardless of the form that such an organization takes in any particular State, it must be concerned *specifically with the problems of controlling juvenile delinquency, and not in a more general way* with the promotion of all child-welfare services. Attention to the delinquent has too often fallen among the boards of other activities and has been lost in the

[10] London *Daily Mail*, August 11, 1941

[11] We know already from researches that Professor Glueck and I have been carrying on that there are certain delinquents who respond exceedingly well to life in the Army and Navy, much better, in fact, than they do to supervision under probation or other types of penocorrectional treatment. See Sheldon and Eleanor T. Glueck, *Juvenile Delinquents Grown Up* (Commonwealth Fund, New York City, 1940). Another volume soon to be published by the Commonwealth Fund under the probable title of "Criminals under Treatment" further confirms this judgment

functions of innumerable social agencies that are concerned with one or another aspect of child welfare. The problem of controlling juvenile delinquency in wartime is so urgent that only a prompt and closely coördinated attack on it will bring the desired results.

Eleanor T. Glueck is at present a research criminologist, special studies, Harvard Law School.

LONDON CORRESPONDENT GIVES "DON'TS" TO PREVENT DELINQUENCY

William H. Stoneman, London correspondent for the *Chicago Daily News*, in a dispatch dated February 4, 1942, outlines factors underlying the increase in juvenile delinquency in England. After a study of Britain's experience, he arrives at the following important "don'ts" for America:

"1. Don't close schools anywhere if you can help it. Don't call school teachers for service or let them enlist; expand instead of cutting down on normal educational facilities.

"2. Don't close any clubs or other recreation centers. Increase activities of such organizations as Knights of Columbus, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., and all settlements and playgrounds. A good Boy Scout or Y.M.C.A. leader, or a good playground supervisor, can do more for his country by sticking to his job than by trying to learn to fire a rifle.

"3. Avoid the breakup of families by conscripting fathers for military service or mothers for industry. If it is necessary to conscript them or to allow them to enlist, be sure that every child has some responsible relative or friend to care for him.

"4. Don't throw an army of youngsters into industry any old way, and limit the amount of cash paid to young people employed in industry."

(Reprinted from *Federal Probation*, 6:3 July-September, '42.)

PSYCHOPATHIC PERSONALITY AND CRIME

DAVID M. LEVY

Recent studies dealing with maternal rejection and overprotection have helped to delineate certain groups out of the vast region of psychopathic personality. Though a rather vague concept, the term "psychopathic personality" has been a very useful one in the field of psychiatry. It has been generally employed to denote a group of personality disturbances characterized by (1) chronicity, (2) "unmodifiability," (3) early onset, and (4) pathology of emotional life.

Chronicity refers to the finding that the difficulty has been of long duration. The manifestations are usually revealed in childhood. "Unmodifiability" refers to the most commonly recognized finding; namely, that all emotional influences that ordinarily affect the normal human being are without avail. In fact, the lack of response to persuasion, discipline, or psychotherapy is frequently the observation that determines the diagnosis. Emotional pathology is seen in various forms, especially in shallowness of affect, emotional instability, and egocentricity. Usually "unmodifiability" has been attributed to the emotional pathology.

In actual practice, however, the diagnosis is made usually by "exclusion." In severe personality disturbances, the absence of the characteristic features of neurosis or psychosis (especially schizophrenia) or epilepsy, or mental deficiency, has determined the appellation "psychopathic personality." It is for that reason that it has been called a "waste paper basket" diagnosis. It is a vague term used too often for the classification of those personality difficulties that do not fit in other better defined categories. Out of this vast region it is now possible to demarcate a few well-defined areas. How far these areas extend, in fact, whether they cover the whole region, must be determined by further study. There is already a controversy as to how large a proportion of the cases known as "psychopathic

personality" are included under, for example, the term "deprived psychopath." The new contributions to this subject have arisen from investigations of those mother child relationships that have become known as "maternal rejection" and "maternal overprotection." From the former, under special conditions, the "deprived psychopath" may blossom, from the latter, the "indulged psychopath."

"Affect hunger," or emotional privation, of varying degrees is assumed to be the emotional state of individuals brought up under the regime of *maternal rejection. Evidence of* such "*hunger*" is seen in manifold forms. The most striking feature in most of them lies in the remarkable need of attachment, and the claims made, in social relationships. One sees aggressive striving for intimate friendships, excessive demands, and microscopic surveillance of every phase of the relationship. One sees also a completely submissive acceptance of any friendship that offers, regardless of humiliation. In any one of the numerous patterns that are evolved, basically it is the underlying need for love, devotion, recognition, protection — for all those elements of emotional sustenance that are comprised under the term "maternal love."

Of course we all need *affection, recognition,* and the like. They are fundamental drives in human personality. In the case of affect hunger, such needs are simply magnified. Such magnified needs do not necessarily produce psychopathic personality, though it is not difficult to envisage such a possibility. For example, delinquent reactions to emotional privation are seen as spiteful and self-justifying acts. It is as though the child says, "I have a right to steal because no one cares for me," or, "I have a right to steal because I was always gypped." Such delinquent acts are explained also as symbolic thefts of love. In support of the latter theory there is, at least, the observation that love-hungry children make much of gifts as the proof of love.

This problem arises under war conditions especially when family disruption occurs. There are sufficient environmental conditions to

explain a rise in juvenile delinquency—blackouts, lessened supervision, etc. However, the response of the child to the mother whose absence from home is considered by the child as an abandonment may lead to delinquency because of emotional privation. One of the reasons for being "good" in childhood is the reward of maternal love. Alfred Adler was particularly aware of maternal rejection as a source of delinquency. He regarded it as a hostile reaction of the child against society because of the original depriving parent.

Whatever further investigations will find in the type of emotional privation described as a source of crime, present research indicates that the "deprived psychopath" has suffered so severe an emotional privation as to affect his ability to make an emotional attachment to any individual. It is this inability to make an emotional attachment that explains the "unmodifiability." The usual remarks about the deprived psychopath are, "You can't get underneath his skin," or, "You say something to him but it doesn't mean anything." Other remarks attest to what is called by psychiatrists "shallow affect." Interestingly, the case samples of children diagnosed as psychopathic personality are, frequently, adopted children who had no opportunity in the infantile period of being emotionally tied to any individual.[1] The handicap of the personality is often described as pathology of the process of identification.

Deprived psychopaths have the same distribution of intelligence as normal groups. They make relationships with people, of course. They show evidence of all the normal emotions. But they are never

[1] The same condition may exist in animals. I have recently observed a dog of whom the owner said, "Affection doesn't mean anything to him." The dog was a well grown healthy pointer, bought from a kennel when three months old. Thereafter for six months he was fed in the home of his owner by a servant, the only human who had contact with him. The servant despised dogs, but fed him conscientiously. The owner, who returned after this period of time, was very kind to the animal but was never able to get a "normal response." The dog showed no positive response to petting. When petted on the head, he would run away. The reaction to most people was to jump on them, though never viciously. He showed no evidence of wanting to be near the owner in spite of all efforts the owner had made to engage the dog's affection. He had been several years in the owner's care when the observations were made. Though a random study, this note is published with the hope that careful observations and records of animals, in relation to this problem, will be stimulated.

deep, at least not deep enough for the purpose of being influenced in what we regard as the normal manner. In psychiatric clinics, there is the usual experience of some one on the staff who takes the therapeutic challenge of such a case. In one case at the Institute for Juvenile Research, Chicago, a psychiatrist lived with an adolescent psychopathic delinquent of the type described. He brought him up as his own son. After the psychiatrist was robbed on a number of occasions, he gave up the case. Such examples may be readily multiplied.

Further studies will indicate quantitative variations in shallowness of affect, though at the present time the differentiation is considered quite qualitative. There is a difference in "depth of feeling" in normals, a difference in the strength of the identifying process.

Examples of the manifestations of "shallow affect" may be cited. A seventeen-year-old boy, waiting in a local jail for sentence to the penitentiary because of robbery, was visited by his father. It was the night before he was to leave for the penitentiary. The father assured the boy he still felt sympathetic toward him. He hoped the experience in the penitentiary would be a deterrent to future delinquency. He continued in this vein until both were reduced to tears. Thereupon he asked the boy if he could do anything on earth for him before he left for the penitentiary. The boy said, "Sure, get me a hot dog sandwich."

Another example, taken from the records of Dr. S. N. Clark, concerns an adolescent girl who was sent to a disciplinary school for girls. There she gave birth to an illegitimate, syphilitic child. A few days afterward, she wrote a letter to her mother telling what a sad plight she was in. She recounted all of her misfortunes. Then she wrote with great enthusiasm about a ribbon of a certain color that she wanted for a hat she was making. In the letter, more feeling was indicated toward the ribbon than toward her commitment to the institution and her other misfortunes.

Cases of psychopathic personality derived from maternal over-

protection offer a marked contrast in their origin to the "deprived." There is, instead of emotional privation, a surfeit of maternal devotion. Psychopathic traits are related to the indulgent aspects of the maternal love. Infantile wishes and demands are catered to. There is a complete surrender to the child. As a result a weakening of the discipline of the personality takes place. In these cases there is no privation. There is an overabundance. Maternal overprotection is differentiated into a dominating, and an indulging form. It is only out of the latter that psychopathic personality may develop. Of course, the vast majority of children who have been indulged do not become psychopathic. There are as yet no statistical data at hand. However, the number is most likely a very small per cent.

Why don't all children who have experienced indulgent overprotection become psychopathic personalities? The answer probably lies in a consideration of all those influences that have modified the effects of the maternal indulgence. It lies also in the degree of indulgence. Usually highly indulgent mothers may be adamant in regard to certain phases of the life of the child. This is especially true of schoolwork. The maternal protective attitude is in itself an inhibiting influence on the indulgent attitude in the school situation. Since overprotecting mothers will exert themselves more than normally in raising the child's status in the classroom in ensuring his education, they are much more likely to see to it that the child is well prepared in his work. They are much more likely to coach the child than are other mothers, and to make sure of his constant attendance. In respect to the school, the overprotected child soon learns that all his tricks in getting out of the disciplinary requirements of the mother fail. In that sphere the mother is usually adamant.

If the overprotected child is intelligent, as he often is, and since he usually has a greater verbal facility than other children, he has a definite advantage in the classroom. Hence the mother's objective is aided by the child's developing satisfactions in the classroom. That is a common story. After a while the child's attitude toward the

school becomes a responsible one. This type of experience has a sobering effect on the overprotected. It is a definitely stabilizing influence. The status of being the exception to all rules is altered to maintain his success in the classroom. There is an acceptance of all sorts of restraints to the unbridled behavior at home. This same process may continue throughout the career of the individual, so that we may have the picture of the successful businessman or teacher or employee, well disciplined in office or factory, and yet the spoiled child at home.

Now consider a case in which there has been a high degree of indulgent overprotection at home without any of the restraining influences of the school. Actually instances of psychopathic personality arising out of that type of mother-child relationship show an unstable school and work record. It may be that the measure of instability in regard to school and work is the best measure of the instability of the indulged psychopath.

Stabilizing influences may come, of course, from other sources. Since the indulged psychopath is able to give a great deal of affection, however demanding he may be, various personal influences may become stabilizing events. Constitutional factors have been especially urged in explanation of the psychopath. Such factors concern particularly "emotional stability." The problem is a complicated one because in every instance in which a constitutional factor is used to explain a response, the emotional factor seems equally plausible. For example, the indulged psychopath frequently displays temper tantrums. These may be regarded as proof of constitutional instability. On the other hand, they represent unmodified infantile responses. Nevertheless, the ease of modification depends, among other things, on certain innate capacities. Accepting the constitutional factors as a causal agent in psychopathic personality, we still have the problem of determining its special genetic or constitutional function.

The particular characteristics of the indulged psychopath will be

easily traced to the magnified infantile demands and expectations. His typical charm makes him clever in swindling, based on a long experience of wheedling the mother, in using every variety of excuse to get out of difficulties, of getting around every difficulty by the use of coaxing and wheedling and colorful excuses. His optimism is based on the old expectation that the mother will always provide. Hence the deterrents in real experience are of diminished value. His difficulty on a job is typically in refusing to abide by the requirements of the work and of insolence to the boss. Insolence and disobedience are the typical complaints for which he is brought to the "guidance clinic" as a child. His mood lability may be explained also as an indulgence of any mood display as in childhood. His "parasitism" represents his naive acceptance of dependency on maternal support.

The purpose of this paper has been to delineate the two types of the psychopathic personality—the deprived and the indulged. Both groups have been traced to the mother-child relationships in early life. The thesis has been simplified so that the main lines of determination are clear. There are, of course, various combinations of rejection and overprotection in the life of the individual; periods in which one is present for some years and the other absent, and then a reversal of the relationship. There are various maternal substitutes and varying degrees of deterrents and reenforcing agents to the maternal influence. Through all these patterns, the problems of privation and indulgence can be discerned. The most notable examples of psychopathic personality with which the writer is familiar arise in the especially clear-cut and consistent pictures of maternal rejection or overprotection. A recent study at Bellevue Hospital shows evidence of emotional privation in all children diagnosed as psychopathic personality. It will be seen from the description presented in this paper that the indulged psychopath is more easily diagnosed in adolescence than in early life since at that time he ap-

pears difficult to differentiate from the vast group of the so-called spoiled children.

CASE HISTORIES

An example of psychopathic personality of the indulged type is presented. (Case 16 in "Maternal Overprotection," *Psychiatry*, 4, 1941, pp. 616–620.)

Age 14 years, 4 months. A boy age 14 years, 4 months, was referred for stealing, truancy, and incorrigibility. He had already been twice committed to a "protectory."

The psychiatrist had seven interviews with the patient, one with the father—who was released from prison during the period of treatment—and one with the mother, over a period of seven months. A social worker saw the mother on one occasion. A worker in a cooperating agency also had interviews with her.

The difficulty was related to maternal "spoiling," the factors being a first born child, absence of the father through repeated prison sentences, and estrangement of the mother from her family.

The plan of treatment was to give the boy insight into his irresponsible and dependent behavior, to play the role of father to him, and keep in a supervising relationship. It was planned also to get him a job in which he could attain a measure of satisfaction not possible in school, because of his poor scholastic achievement. It was hoped through the cooperating agency to enable the mother to alter her constant protective attitude toward the patient, and enable him to become mature.

After several interviews the psychiatrist was impressed with the boy's frankness, charm, punctuality in keeping appointments, and his cooperative attitude. He decided it would be necessary to see the boy no oftener than once in three or four weeks, just to keep in touch with him. The boy had also cooperated in getting dental treatment for pyorrhea which had been diagnosed in the routine physical examination. A change of psychiatrists took place after the seventh interview. Thereafter the patient came late for the two appointments he kept, and failed to appear for several others. However, he had already shown evidence of delinquent behavior.

Age 14 years, 11 months. The closing entry in this case was "status unadjusted," since the patient had been apprehended a second time for

stealing, during the period of treatment, and was committed to an institution. Furthermore, there was no evidence of any change in the mother's attitude. She remained to the end the protecting mother, ever ready, like the boy himself, to explain his misconduct through the evil influence of others, to regard it lightly, or to insist on his innocence; and always to attest to his goodness and assurance that he had learned his lesson and would never be in trouble again.

Age 16 years, 3 months. Followed up sixteen months after treatment, it was found that the patient had run away from the institution and was brought back. At the time of the follow-up study he had been released six months. In this period he was earning money and was regarded as "unusually satisfactory" by his employer. He was going with more desirable companions, adjusting well at home, and keeping company with a girl his age. The follow-up status was put in the C category—partially adjusted.

Age 18 years, 2 months. Less than two years later—23 months—the patient was awaiting sentence in court following his conviction for robbery.

Comment

A striking feature of the case is the optimistic outlook on the part of the psychiatrist. In spite of a previous record of delinquency involving two commitments, bad companions, a criminal father, and a blindly overprotecting mother, he was satisfied, after a few interviews with the patient, that the prognosis was good.

Since this optimism appears typical of psychiatrists—as of laymen—in their early contacts with, especially, intelligent delinquents (the psychiatrist in the case was having his first year of training as a Fellow), it is worth considering. The charm, good looks, and frank and friendly behavior of the patient were so convincing that the temptation to consider the boy as he appeared in the office, instead of the whole picture of the case, could not be resisted. However, other elements in the picture had to be dealt with. These were duly considered by the psychiatrist. He laid stress on their "constructive" aspects. The mother's role was seen as that of a stable provider who kept the home together regardless of poverty and her husband's incarceration. The father had always been friendly with the boy, and in relation with him, played a good paternal role. Since the prison sentences were due mostly to crimes relating to his drug addiction, these were regarded by the boy, and by the father, as evidence of

abnormal weakness rather than vicariance. The father utilized his prison record as a warning to the patient to keep away from bad companions. As an influence the father was regarded, therefore, as having potentially positive values. Reinforced by supervision of companions, a summer camp experience with normal boys, satisfying employment, a social worker in contact with the mother, besides the psychiatric efforts, it was thought, naturally, that the patient's behavior could readily be deflected from a delinquent direction. The early period of freedom from delinquency during the course of therapy helped to confirm the favorable aspects; likewise the first follow-up investigation.

In evaluating the case data, apparent weaknesses were revealed in estimating the boy's past record, in failure to appraise the meaning of his "charm," or the powerful forces involved in the mother-son relationship. Considering the record of truancy and stealing, within the limitations of the material presented, it could be said that the behavior was consistent with the indulgent overprotection, especially if the factors of maternal neglect and exposure to delinquent companions are added. For, as an example of indulgent overprotection, this case differs from others in the group in that the mother was earner for the family, and absent from the home a good part of the day. Hence the typical protection of the boy from companionship, good or bad, and coaching in school subjects, features of "pure" maternal overprotection, could not be put into effect. Further, his easy success in school subjects could not be attained in the higher grades, since his intelligence, according to tests, was no more than "high average." Actually, there is a consistency with his truancy and difficulty in school subjects, which came when he was about ten years of age. The truancy, therefore, a typical response of the aggressive boy to an unsatisfying school situation, was consistent with the aggressive features developed in indulgent overprotection. The difficulty of bearing any frustrating experience is especially severe in the indulgent overprotected. This fact, if it had been considered, would have made the psychiatrist quite guarded in his prognosis.

The boy's charm, an asset frequently seen in the overprotected child, may be explained by a special background of experience in wheedling the mother. The overprotected child's skill in verbalizing has been previously described. That it is put to the service of getting out of responsibility is natural enough. Also all the winning ways of a child would be highly fostered in an overprotective relationship in which the mother is

so ready to respond When it happens so frequently in the indulged group, that the child is not made to fulfill his promises, or take the consequences of his behavior, a general pattern of opportunistic verbalization is easily developed This pattern has been ascribed also to the optimistic outlook of the overprotected, originating in excessive love and protection, and resulting in the unrealistic expectation that the world, like mother, will always provide. Thus, the patient carried a convincing story that his previous difficulties would never be repeated, that he could explain everything, and that he was most eager to cooperate with the psychiatrist.

Belief that the maternal attitude could be changed was held without full appreciation of the powerful forces involved. To the end of the case study, the mother maintained the belief that the entire difficulty was explained by the influence of bad companions on a good boy. Besides the usual dynamics of maternal overprotection, there were unusually strengthening factors in the case. The mother made a marriage against the strongest opposition of her parents and was eager to prove, through her husband's success, that they were wrong. Her hostility toward them was to be satisfied in this way, besides a strong need for increased self-esteem, which was lowered by complete separation from her family. Her husband's incarceration was a blow so great that, for a while, she contemplated suicide Through her son she hoped anew to regain all she had lost As far as the record goes, she never altered in her uncritical attitude toward him, in spite of the facts. The need of maintaining her illusion is seen clearly enough in the material revealed in the comment, aside from the maternal overprotection factors

The patient's delinquency must be considered also in relation with a criminal father, and delinquent companions As a direct influence, the latter may be considered the more important, since the patient lived in an environment in which delinquency was a readily available outlet for his dissatisfactions Since the case represents a combination of indulgent overprotection and neglect, that is, overprotection in which the protective phase became highly diminished, the lapse into delinquency as an easy way of gratification in regard to theft and the satisfaction of gang leadership is well comprehended In a sense, the parasitic relationship to society in general, represented by this case, is similar to the others in which the parasitism, in the form of taking without giving, is confined within personal relationships

Age 25 years, 6 months The worker had four interviews with the mother, and interviews also with father, sister, brother in law, and probation officer. The patient was in prison. He was not interviewed. Information from the Division of Parole revealed a number of arrests for hold ups, in one of which the patient with two other boys knocked a man unconscious. The patient had spent most of the past ten years in a reformatory or penitentiary. The parole officer considered him a dangerous criminal who would most likely end his days in the chair. A physical examination made when the patient was twenty years old revealed no evidence of disease. He was well nourished and strong. His height was five feet, nine inches. On intelligence tests he scored an IQ of 103, a result similar to his performance when age 14 years, IQ 100.

The patient was still the great center of interest in the family. They spoke continually about him. The mother wrote him three or four times a week, sent him packages of food, and visited him whenever possible. She would let the family starve, she said, to send him the things he asked for. She was firmly convinced he was innocent. She believed he was framed by the police. In the next sentence she blamed his difficulties on evil companions. He was a good boy. He just never had a chance.

He used to give her all his money, call her sweetheart, kiss her a great deal, and tell her everything. The mother, a short, stout woman of forty-five, cried freely as she told her story. She described in detail her son's charm, politeness, his dream of buying her a house and garden, or making her rich. He was very strong. He used to pick her up high in the air and swing her around. He often fought in the ring and hoped to become a prize fighter.

Of course, she gave in to him very easily. He could change any attempts at discipline into another extra indulgence.

He was not interested in girls, she said, though he went out with them. When he did earn money, he gave her all he earned, and she gave him an allowance.

The mother confirmed her defense of her son. She used to write letters frequently to the judge who had last sentenced him. The judge died, she believed, as retaliation from God, and as she warned him, for sending an innocent boy to jail.

She also defended her husband. He was no longer using drugs. No, there were no longer any sexual problems. She was resigned to the fact that her husband was a weak, sick man who could not work.

She herself was employed, as usual, and held her job many years.

Her daughter and son-in-law were living with them, for which she was happy.

Mother interview with psychiatrist. She was short—four feet, ten inches, stout, large breasted. She was eager for the interview in order to leave no stone unturned to get help for her son. She wanted a letter to the warden proving that rightfully her son's sentence could be shortened, by giving him credit for time spent at a previous incarceration.

When the main facts of her history were reviewed, she said, "I'm right back where I started from, always in trouble."

She loved her son evidently as much as ever, gave further evidence of his lover-like relationship, his embraces and kisses, his compliments about her cooking, his beckoning through a shop window when she could buy a dress, to tell her which one to choose.

Before marriage, however, she was not especially maternal. She never enjoyed caring for children, never responded to babies, nor cared for dolls. She used to say she would never have any children. After marriage she decided to have *no more than two.* When her son was born, however, things were different. She was "crazy" about him. She could deny him nothing. No, she has no idea why. He was just as crazy about her, too. She never thought keeping him on the breast eighteen months was too long. She thinks, maybe, his swollen glands may have had something to do with her strong feeling for him. They were cut open before he was a year old. She had to have them dressed for two weeks.

Her daughter's feeling that the boy got more affection was no doubt true, she said.

Her husband was the first and only man she was ever serious about. She met him at fourteen and married just before she was seventeen. She reconciled herself long ago, she claimed, to the absence of sex gratification.

Apparently a proud, aggressive, and stubborn woman, very hostile to her mother, she made a suicidal attempt, although halfheartedly, when she had to accept the fact that her mother was right about her bad marriage. At the time of her son's trial she wrote letters to the judge threatening to kill herself if he did not release the boy. She remained a stable, responsible worker and managed to keep a home ready for husband or son.

Interviews with father, sister, and brother-in-law served chiefly to confirm the mother's statements about her relation to her son. Father, sister,

and brother-in-law offered the same defense of the patient. The father's record with the Department of Welfare was investigated. He resented employment at his old trade, claiming hands were tossed. He had had irregular and short periods of work, with the WPA. The father said he was too weak for any kind of outdoor work, and criticized the WPA severely. He made the same type of excuses for himself as for his son. He blamed policemen for arresting people in order to get promotion. Innocent people get arrested for murder. His son's case, like his own, was a matter of bad luck. He elaborated this theme vehemently for an hour. The father was also seen by the psychiatrist. He was short, thin, sallow complexioned. His manner was deferential, his conversation designed to arouse pity for a poor man who never had a chance, and the like.

He said his wife could never deny her son anything. But she always liked to please everybody. She simply could not say no. He recognized the fact that the boy had been badly spoiled.

An attempt to get some light on his own addiction to morphine was met by a series of stereotyped defenses—his hard luck, letting bad people influence him. A month following this interview he was imprisoned again for possession of morphine.

Comment

In relation to the patient, there is little more to add to the comment already made at the end of the earlier follow-up studies. The pattern of behavior has become fixed, and a diagnosis of psychopathic personality is established. The attitude of the family that he was a sweet, charming boy, very convincing about his good intentions, was shared by the workers who had contact with him earlier in the case. The remarkably uncritical devotion of his mother, for whom the patient remains idealized son and lover, was well determined when the patient was first seen at the age of fourteen years. The picture at present is that of a dangerous criminal, with a devoted family completely influenced by the maternal attitude, and ready to protect him against the consequences of his behavior.

An interesting finding in the mother's history is the lack of evidence of maternal feeling before marriage. It is evidently not a true but rather a compensatory type of overprotection, presumably based on neurosis. In her early history the bitter hostility to her mother, and the early marriage in spite of tremendous opposition, even including commitment to a protectory, are the most significant events. This light characterized her whole

life, the fight to prove her success, to prove her superiority to her mother. It is not difficult to understand how this battle, after acceptance of defeat in acknowledging the failure of her marriage, became focused entirely on the son. Her father was a hard-working, undemonstrative man, who saw very little of his children. He died when she was eight years old.

It is difficult to make a psychiatric diagnosis. Obsessional neurosis seems a likely term, if it can be utilized to describe a relationship that is obsessional, in spite of the absence of obsessional symptoms. For in her case there was no evidence of obsessional thoughts, or behavior, or ritualistic protective devices, or of the typical overconscientiousness. In common with the obsessional neurotic is, probably, the aggressive, stubborn, stable personality. A psychiatry of relationship pathology does not yet exist. When it does, "obsessional relationship" may be one of its classifications.

An example of psychopathic personality of the deprived type is presented. (Case excerpt from "Primary Affect Hunger," *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 94, 1937, p. 646.)

An adopted child, a girl aged nine years and ten months at the time of referral to the Institute for Child Guidance, was referred for general incorrigibility. She was adopted at the age of seven months into a home in which the foster mother could give little affection, but demanded highly conventional behavior. Before the referral, she had been seen by two psychiatrists, one in consultation and the other for a series of about twelve interviews. She had also received thyroid treatment for a period of time, though our findings showed no evidence of physical difficulty. Our examination revealed, besides the problems for which she was referred, fantastic lying, difficulty in making any friendly relationships with children, and school retardation. The parents noted especially her "failure to profit by experience" and "unresponsiveness to affection." The problem was complicated by the fact that the home was of superior type in a cultural sense—requirements that were too high for a child with an IQ of 80. She never responded to the nurse's fondling. When the nurse left the patient at five years old, she gave no indication of any response to the nurse's departure. She was never able to get along with other children because of her bullying, dominating tactics. Strong negativistic tendencies were shown at the age of two. A physical examination revealed no organic findings.

The entire history led to the conclusion that the patient had some in-

adequacy in her emotional response and was an unfavorable subject for therapy. The parents were, throughout the long contact that ensued, conscientious in cooperating with every therapeutic effort. The patient was treated by the psychiatrist, utilizing chiefly a psychoanalytic method, for a period of two years. The behavior of the patient during the process of over two hundred sessions was markedly negativistic. There were some interesting periods of improvement. Nevertheless, the result of the entire therapy was practically nil. At the end of the treatment, the parents were willing to consider another therapeutic adventure before referring the child to foster care. Through special circumstances, it was possible to send the child to Vienna, where she was treated by a psychiatrist of the Adlerian school, with whom she lived for a period of three years. The results were essentially negative, indeed, the child's problems became more alarming because of her greatly increased aggression. She was thereupon sent to her own mother and very quickly got into difficulty because of her incorrigibility and because, somehow or other, she had managed to collect five revolvers. From there she was sent to an orphanage, from which she ran away on two occasions, and then to a detention home, from which the psychiatrist wrote that he considered the patient an excellent prospect for intensive therapy.

At the last notation, the patient was twenty-two years, incarcerated in a State penitentiary for robbery.

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NEGRO DELINQUENCY IN NEW YORK

PAUL BLANSHARD

It is difficult to discuss Negro delinquency without playing into the hands of extremists of two sorts, the Negro haters who would like to prove that all persons of African mixture are "no-account niggers," and the politicians whose eyes are cocked toward the Negro vote and who try to misrepresent every serious charge against any Negro as the outgrowth of race prejudice.

This discussion tries to avoid these extremes This discussion is, as it should be, a product of colored and white citizens, an outgrowth of the report of the subcommittee on crime and delinquency of the City-wide Citizens' Committee on Harlem, of which I was chairman For these words I am alone responsible, but the general conclusions were reached by a score of leading white and colored judges, commissioners, preachers, and social workers after months of study. The facts presented are chiefly about New York City, but the analysis of basic factors is almost equally applicable to any other Northern city.

Negro crime in New York is a national problem because it is caused partly by national neglect and a national attitude toward the Negro race The South pours into Northern cities hundreds of thousands of undereducated, underfed, and maladjusted Negro Americans who are natural materials for careers of crime because of America's failure to train them properly for responsible citizenship. When their names appear on the police blotters of New York City, the name of Uncle Sam ought to appear alongside as codefendant

In a sense the Southern Negroes who migrate to Northern cities bring some of their environment with them They cannot quickly outgrow their own underprivileged backgrounds. The Chicago Commission on Race Relations showed in 1921 that the great majority of retarded Negro children in Chicago schools were recent emigrants from the South. Many similar studies have proved that

the bad environment that helps to produce Negro crime in Northern cities does not begin in Northern slums but starts in the South.

The most fundamental cause of any particular Negro offense committed in New York City may not lie in the personality of the Negro himself or even in his immediate environment, it may go back to the great system of discrimination and exploitation which most Americans accept as the standard procedure in dealing with the Negro population.

A Negro boy may become a burglar because his mother is working every afternoon and evening and must leave him neglected, and the mother may be compelled to work because some white employers discriminate against the boy's father by refusing to employ Negroes. Slums, broken families, the great increase of migration from certain sections of the South, insufficient educational opportunities, and the lack of vocational training—all these and a hundred other factors may aid in the creation of a Negro criminal. The same factors that create criminals among white people operate with more deadly effect among Negro people, because the poverty, crowding, and underprivilege of the Negro community are more pronounced.

The crime situation in Harlem attracted national attention in the fall of 1941 when a series of "muggings" by Negro youths in the vicinity of Central Park caused a repetition of alarming headlines. The papers said there was a "crime wave"; the common citizen tended to believe it because of the force of repetition in print. Was there a Harlem crime wave? In the sense of a sudden upsurge of Negro crime, no. In the sense that Negro crime in New York has assumed grave proportions, yes. Actually the number of offenses committed by Negroes in the fall of 1941 in Harlem was probably only slightly greater than in the corresponding period of 1940. (Unfortunately, for the sake of scientific analysis, the Police Department's arrest figures are not broken down by race.)

But the truth about Negro crime is bad enough to give every friend of the Negro people deep concern. Convictions and arraign-

ments for juvenile delinquency and crime are much higher among the Negroes of New York than among the whites. There are about five times as many Negroes as whites in City and State prisons in proportion to their respective numbers in the population. In this respect, New York is not worse or better than many other States, but the Negro percentage of criminal commitments has grown larger in recent years. There are more than twice as many colored defendants as white arraigned in our magistrates' courts on genuine criminal charges, in proportion to racial population

More serious than the adult criminal proportion is the alarming increase in colored juvenile delinquency in recent years. Indeed, Negro juvenile delinquency is today the most important crime problem in New York. Even before Pearl Harbor colored juvenile delinquency increased sharply. During the first full three months after our entrance into the war juvenile delinquency in all races in the City increased 10 per cent over the corresponding three months of the previous year, but it is too early to say that war itself has increased juvenile delinquency in the City.

There are five times more Negro juvenile delinquents arraigned in Children's Court than white delinquents in proportion to their respective numbers in the population, and 1941 saw an increase of 23 per cent in Negro juvenile delinquency in the City. While the increase occurred throughout the City, it was especially significant and alarming in Manhattan where Harlem for the first time in history actually sent more delinquents to Children's Court than the total number of white juvenile delinquents in the borough. To be exact, Negro juvenile delinquency increased 32 per cent in Manhattan in 1941 while white juvenile delinquency declined

The wartime increase in juvenile delinquency of all races (January, February, and March 1942) took place chiefly among the white boys and girls of Brooklyn and the Bronx Negro juvenile delinquency in Manhattan actually declined during those months. Possibly the public agitation concerning Harlem crimes and the

increased attention of police officers accounted for this temporary delinquency decline in Harlem.

The records of the Children's Court indicate a striking relationship between delinquency among Negro children and neglect of such children. Indeed, it is impossible in dealing with young children to draw any scientific dividing line between the neglected and the delinquent child. A neglected child rapidly becomes a delinquent. Behind the neglect there may be desperate poverty. Neglected Negro children in New York City increased 67 per cent in 1941 over 1930, while neglected white children declined 66 per cent.[1]

In New York City there is a striking correlation between the slums and juvenile delinquency in all races. Practically every study of juvenile delinquency made in recent years has revealed that delinquency occurs chiefly in the crowded and poverty stricken sections of the City. The pins placed on the delinquency maps of the Children's Courts to show the places of residence of each delinquent child are location markers for slums.

It is not fashionable to stress any one cause of crime but I believe that, if a first prize must be awarded to any one social factor in crime, that factor is poverty. Of course, the word "poverty" is so general and vague that when you say poverty is the chief cause of

[1] For the sake of brevity we have classified allegedly delinquent and allegedly neglected children brought before the Children's Court as delinquent and neglected respectively, since the racial proportions are not thereby altered. The records of the Children's Court show the following facts: While the Negro population of New York City increased 114 per cent between 1920 and 1930, the number of cases of Negro children brought before the Children's Court increased 241 per cent in 1931 over 1920. In 1931, 16.1 per cent of the delinquent and neglected children in Children's Court were Negro, in 1935, 20 per cent, in 1938, 24 per cent, in 1939, 37 per cent. In 1931, of 2,284 allegedly neglected children in court, 383 were Negro (of whom 350 were from Manhattan). This represented a 66 decrease among white children and a 67 per cent increase among Negro children over 1930. For all boroughs during 1941, the percentages of allegedly neglected children who were Negro and white were 21 and 79 respectively, in 1940 they were 19 and 81. In 1941, out of a total of 3,148 allegedly delinquent children appearing in the Children's Courts throughout the City, 1,528 were Negroes. In Manhattan alone the total of allegedly delinquent children was 1,741, of whom 880 were Negro children, or 29 more Negro children than white. For all boroughs during 1941, the percentages of delinquents who were Negro and white were 33 and 66, respectively, in 1940, 28 and 72.

crime you have only begun a chain of thought. You have not stated a clearly chiseled scientific judgment But you have the evidence of your own eyes if you attend our courts. When you look at the children there you know what underprivilege means. They are poor. Often they are obviously underfed. When I look at them I often feel like climbing on a soap box and shouting the old message of Bernard Shaw, that poverty is the greatest crime in the world, that it is the root crime of all other crimes, that the trouble with the poor is poverty and that the trouble with the rich is uselessness, and that until the basic inequality in the distribution of wealth in our modern society is remedied, we are wasting our breath in talking about crime prevention. I say that I often have that impulse, but I restrain it because it is only half the truth The other half of the truth is that there are many fundamental causes besides poverty which must be taken into consideration.

With Negro children the causal chain from poverty to neglect to delinquency is so apparent that it needs no statistical proof The increase in Negro juvenile delinquency is not a new thing, since it has been continuing for more than two decades as the Negro population of the City has increased. The 1941 increase is especially striking because there was apparently a substantial decrease in juvenile delinquency in central and east Harlem in 1940 as against 1939.

Negro criminals do not specialize in gang murders and rackets; they leave this major area of crime to the white racketeers and gunmen They specialize in crimes of personal violence, crimes against property, and in gambling and prostitution. The Police Department's criminal arrest statistics are not broken down by race, so the character of Negro crime must be inferred from court records and experience.[2]

[2] A study for the Mayor's Committee by Professor E Franklin Frazier of Howard University, covering the records of seven police precincts in the Harlem area during the first six months of 1935, showed that 6,540 Negro men and 1,338 Negro women were arrested Of the male arrests, 41 9 per cent were policy arrests, 30 9 per cent disorderly conduct, and only 7 per cent burglary, robbery, grand larceny, assault and robbery, and pickpocketing combined Approximately 80 per cent of the Negro women arrested were charged with immoral sex behavior

While five times as many Negroes as whites go to prison in New York, in proportion to their numbers in the population, it is impossible to say how many of the Negroes would be free if there were no race prejudice involved in their original arrest, and if they possessed the economic means to hire good lawyers, secure bail promptly, and face a court and jury without race prejudice. Careful studies in other cities have revealed the fact that Negroes are much more likely to be punished after arrest than whites. While the 5 to 1 ratio of Negro to white imprisonment in New York City seems very high, it is no higher than in some other cities. The corresponding ratio for penitentiary commitments in the Pittsburgh area is about 9 to 1.[a]

In every city in America, Negroes are victims of the white man's vices and degeneracies. New York City is no exception. Prostitution and gambling center in Harlem partly because the white man goes there for these illegal activities. The numbers or policy racket has always flourished in Harlem, where it is patronized by customers of all races. A recent Welfare Council study showed that, in the City before we entered the war, there were more than ten times as many arrests of Negro women for prostitution as of white women, in proportion to their numbers in the population, and a larger percentage of Negro women arrested were convicted. Likewise a larger percentage of Negro women are sent to prison, in proportion to those convicted.

This study also showed that about 54 per cent of the arrests of women for prostitution in New York City are of Negro women and that almost half of the arrests for prostitution in Manhattan are made in Harlem.

Economic need plays a vital part in sending Negro women into prostitution as a business. Negro women earn the lowest wages in the community and have great irregularity of employment. In 1930 only about one twentieth of 1 per cent of them were able to secure

[a] See the excellent study, *Negro Crime* by Jesse Sprier (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1930).

white-collar jobs. They were compelled to ask relief from the city in four times as many cases as their white sisters, in proportion to their numbers in the population

When we begin to think about remedies and preventives for Negro crime we find that it is impossible to separate the general from the particular remedies. Bad housing in Harlem, for example, is a major cause of crime, and there is no doubt that the City, State, and Nation should build more and better housing in Harlem at once. That is one of the first steps advocated by our City-Wide Citizens' Committee on Harlem, and the subcommittee on housing has amplified the thesis in a thorough report. Likewise with educational and health facilities

But when we have finished with our advocacy of better housing and better schools and better hospitals for Negroes, we are forced to admit that the main obstacle to the good life for Negroes must still be faced.

When we get behind the superficial facts about delinquency we are met with an appalling series of acts of discrimination against the whole Negro population, which practically force Negro families in New York City into a submerged group. We must look to our own hearts to find the explanation for much of the "Negro crime problem." Anything less would be an evasion of the issue. We cannot prevent crime among Negroes unless we fight against race discrimination. We talk large words about democracy and in practice we refuse to hire Negroes except in the most menial positions, and then only when we cannot get white workers for the same money. We get sadistic satisfaction in denouncing Hitler for his racial philosophy and then we blandly practise part of Hitler's gospel day by day.

As a result of this discrimination, there is growing up a certain rebelliousness in the Negro community which sometimes amounts to defiance. If we were Negroes we would probably share that resentment and rebelliousness. What would you do if you were a

young Negro, trained in our public schools, taught to salute the flag, preached at on the Fourth of July to the effect that all men are created equal and are endowed with certain inalienable rights, and then you started the rounds of American factories and saw long lines of white men getting jobs while you were turned away? If you did not become a vigorous rebel against society and against its hypocritical morals there would be something wrong with you.

We must face this fundamental truth, that it is sheer impudence for us to tell the Negro community not to commit more crime while we deny to the Negro community the economic ammunition that makes respectable citizenship possible. Fortunately, the Federal, State, and City governments are taking steps to reduce race discrimination.

One battle against the kind of racial discrimination that fosters crime has recently been won in New York City. Some private charitable institutions in New York handling neglected and delinquent children committed by the Department of Welfare or the courts refused to take Negro children. These institutions received per capita payments from the City for children committed, accepting the children of their own religious faith. Their refusal to take Negro children meant that several hundred such children each year were returned to unfit homes, or kept for too long a period in shelters, or sent to correctional institutions rather than child caring institutions, because of the lack of facilities for them in the right places.

This tragic situation was changed by the City's Board of Estimate by unanimous vote when the Board adopted a Race Discrimination Amendment to the charitable institutions appropriation of the City budget at the request of the City-wide Citizens' Committee on Harlem. The Race Discrimination Amendment, drawn by the subcommittee on crime and delinquency, says: "It is hereby declared to be the policy of the City of New York that on and after October 1, 1942, the Comptroller of the City of New York shall not pay public funds to charitable institutions for the care of dependent, neglected

or delinquent children, which after due notice by the Commissioner of Welfare continue to practice racial discrimination in the admission of inmates."

Fortunately, the war with all its travail may do more for the Negro people than a generation of peace. Like all citizens they are being deprived of social services in courts, hospitals, and schools by city administrations faced with financial crises, but in the process they are finding employment, and in the new national emphasis upon democracy, the old discriminations are being whittled away.

Paul Blanshard who has been executive director of the Society for the Prevention of Crime, has been serving recently as director of the Foreign Division, Recruitment and Manning Organization of the War Shipping Administration

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ILLINOIS DELINQUENCY PREVENTION CONFERENCE

Featured by eminent speakers, a large attendance, and enthusiasm, the 11th Annual Delinquency Conference met in Chicago, Ill., April 20, 21, and 22, 1942. The origin and purpose of the conference—to mobilize all available groups and individuals toward the goal of reducing juvenile delinquency—were set forth in an address by Martin L. Reymert, Ph.D., president of the advisory board of the Illinois Division of Delinquency Prevention.

More than a thousand welfare representatives in all areas of the State attended. The climax was the conference banquet featuring addresses by Governor Dwight H. Green, and Dr. James S. Plant, director of the Essex County Juvenile Clinic, Newark, N. J. Speaking on "The Child and Citizenship," Governor Green emphasized the abnormal conditions incident to war times and stressed the importance of imbuing in the minds of children the sacred use of that liberty for which the country is now fighting. "We must enlarge the sphere of our usefulness as counselors and leaders and provide youth with new inspirations and courage. We must inspire them to become the fit representatives of an ideal form of government in a world order which the forces of evil would change with benefit to none," spoke Governor Green. "Not only individual workers but homes, churches, and communities are called upon to intensify and redouble their efforts in the interest of the young."

(Reprinted from *Federal Probation*, 6:3 July–September, 78.)

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL *may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send in at once to the editor of this department titles, and where possible descriptions, of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in fields of interest kindred to educational sociology*

STUDIES OF THE OSBORNE ASSOCIATION

The Osborn Association, Incorporated, which combines the National Society of Penal Information, Incorporated, and the Welfare League Association, Incorporated, makes nation wide surveys of prisons, adult reformatories, institutions for juvenile delinquents, parole systems, and other agencies and activities in the penal and correctional field. Some of the volumes containing reports of its surveys, which began in 1915, have covered the whole country, but the Association's present procedure is to report on the institutions of a single geographical area in each volume, following the grouping of States used by the United States Bureau of the Census. The Association occasionally makes a survey or investigation of a single institution or the institutions of one State at the request of the authorities or of civic groups. The reports are based on actual field studies by trained staff members and not on questionnaire material.

The Association publishes a series of volumes under the title of the Handbook of American Prisons and Reformatories, of which the first six volumes were published in 1925, 1926, 1929, 1933, 1938, and 1942. A series of three volumes has been published under the title of the Handbook of American Institutions for Delinquent Juveniles. These volumes covered the publicly supported institutions of the West North Central States (1938), Kentucky and Tennessee (1940), and the Pacific Coast States (1940). A fourth Handbook, covering the juvenile institutions of Virginia and North Carolina, is now in preparation.

During 1942 the Association made surveys of the prisons of Illinois and the Michigan Boys' Vocational School at the request of the Governors of those States. The report of the Illinois survey was submitted to the Governor for publication if he sees fit; the Michigan report will be published late in 1942. The officers of the Osborne Association are: Charles D. Osborne, chairman of the Board; C. Howland Shaw, president; Thorsten Sellin, treasurer; Austin H. MacCormick, executive director. Its offices are at 114 East 30th Street, New York City.

BOOK REVIEWS

The University and the Future of America, by ALONZO F. MYERS. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1941, 274 pages.

The occasion for the writing of the material contained in this book was the celebration of the fiftieth birthday of Stanford University. Sixteen of our country's leading scholars and researchers contributed essays more or less closely related to the theme, *The University and the Future of America*. In the main, the essays are good, some even noteworthy. Collectively, they leave something to be desired in that they lack unity. Each author wrote from his particular and somewhat specialized point of view. If one hopes to discover from reading this book what the future holds for the university or what the role of the university will be in the future of America, he will be disappointed. If he hopes to discover what sixteen eminent men think about matters somewhat related to these questions, he will be rewarded.

Foundations of Modern World Society, by LINDEN A. MANDER. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1941, 910 pages.

The lag that has developed between the world which science has made potentially possible and the social institutions at present in use is familiar to every serious student. Dr. Mander, professor of political science at the University of Washington, writes of political institutions and studies their capacity to take advantage of our twentieth century world. As he says in his preface, "In truth, the central question is not, as so many assert, nationalism versus internationalism. The fundamental issue is what kind of nationalism can best serve the interests of the people of the world, and what kind of international organization can most efficiently minister to man's needs." If allies are made by common enemies, Professor Mander lists such problem areas as prevention of crime, conservation of resources, security, and the like, which might serve to draw men closer. A book of nearly a thousand pages is in grave danger of being remembered as heavy, this author's interesting style reduces that danger to a minimum.

Conservation of the Nation's Resources, by HARRY E. FLYNN and FLOYD E. PERKINS. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941, x + 385 pages.

This is a textbook designed for younger readers. The authors emphasize the fact that our resources are of two kinds, natural resources and human resources. Although "natural resources form the physical basis of our culture" they insist that "the goal . . . of all conservation work is the guarding of human resources . . . the conservation of natural resources is valuable only to the extent that it provides for the use of such resources for the welfare of the people" (pages v, vi). In this respect the book differs from many others dealing with the conservation problem. Twice as much space is devoted to presenting the first phase of the subject as to the second. In this connection the authors discuss health, safety, and "the structure of human conservation." The book is attractively illustrated and contains a list of conservation films and a selected list of books for additional reading.

The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School, by Robert Hill Lane. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. 307 pp.

The Teacher in the Modern Elementary School is one of the finest documents that has appeared in the elementary field in recent years. The book is based on intensive practical experience with schools and is replete with illustrations of child activities. While one may not agree with everything recommended in the book, one cannot help but be impressed with the careful detail reported. For example, there are sketches of how a classroom might be organized physically, a factor which often seems to defeat teachers; and eight actual floor plans of schoolrooms where arrangements are given. It is interesting to note that in such presentation of detail Mr. Lane has not lost the vision of the forest for the trees.

His opening chapters, which deal with the general orientation of elementary education in the present American community, are broad and rich in scope and color. Perhaps the outstanding part of the book is the introduction, a charter for the elementary school. This charter deals with the philosophy of education, the objectives of elementary education, the curriculum, and the organization of the elementary school. In every case Mr. Lane has built his charter in accord with the combined understanding of child development and community growth.

This is a book that succeeds in orienting the everyday detail of living with children into the large scope of growing up in a democracy.

The Soviet Experiment, by HARRY BEST. New York: Richard R. Smith, Incorporated, 1941, 120 pages.

The author, a professor of sociology at the University of Kentucky, has attempted to cover a great deal of ground in this brief treatment of a little more than one hundred pages. It can at best serve only as a challenging introduction to a much debated theme. The reader will need to safeguard himself against a certain apparent dogmatism, more or less inevitable in a book of this length. Professor Best has frankly set out to write "a brief account that will enable alike the man in the street and the college student to obtain a wider and clearer understanding of what has happened there." At the same time he attempts to present "the social philosophy underlying what has taken place," basing his treatment on "(1) rather extensive reading upon the subject; (2) conversations with persons holding different points of view who have been to Russia, and (3) personal observations made when the writer had the privilege of visiting Russia at one time 'on his own' without membership in official parties and without official guidance (except when especially requested)." The book consists of fifteen chapters. It opens with a five page presentation of the "extent and resources of Russia" which is followed by four chapters reciting the story of the overthrow of czarism and the establishment of the soviets. In the remaining chapters the author discusses the achievements of the new regime as they have to do with the farm and farm life, education, general culture and material well being, education, morals, religion, and government. There is also a chapter on "the soviet state as a guarantor of world peace." The concluding chapter, "a final review," is an attempt to appraise the experiment. Here the author raises a number of questions reflecting rather unfavorably on the spirit shown and the methods employed. The book is without documentation.

Science, Philosophy and Religion; A Symposium, Conference on Science, Philosophy, and Religion in Their Relation to the Democratic Way of Life. New York: The Conference, 1941, 443 pages.

This symposium contains the two dozen papers read last September at the much publicized Conference on Science, Philosophy, and Religion in Their Relation to the Democratic Way of Life. The main divisions are:

(1) the social sciences and humanities; (2) philosophy, (3) the natural sciences; and (4) religion and the philosophy of education. Among the contributors are H. J. Carman, P. A. Sorokin, Mortimer Adler, Moses Hadas, D. C. Macintosh, J. Maritain, Einstein, W. B. Ritter, H. D. Lasswell, Van Wyck Brooks, E. J. Johnson, Paul Weiss.

The Conference has been permanently organized. The purpose of the group is to show the unity that underlies the variety in philosophy, science, and religion, especially, in that all three are dependent for life upon democracy and threatened by totalitarianism. The papers are for the most part delightfully readable in spite (or because) of their scholarliness.

YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE COURTS

Young People in the Courts of New York State is the title of a 300 page report released in April by the Joint Legislative Committee of the State of New York named to examine into, investigate, and study the existing facilities for the care and treatment of children now coming under the jurisdiction of the children's court, and of minors 16 to 18 years of age now coming under the jurisdiction of the adult courts. The Committee also considered the advisability of changes in the present method of handling cases of minors 16 to 18 years of age, either by extension of the jurisdiction of the children's court or by some other method.

This report, the fifth of a series submitted to the State Legislature, summarizes the discussions and findings of the previous five years, and brings to definite conclusion certain findings and recommendations arising from the deliberations of the Committee.

Benedict S. Alper, research director to the Committee, edited the report.

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EDITORIAL

"We are United Nations at war." "Peace must lead to a coöperative world order with the four freedoms for all peoples." These are the values that have crystallized during the crisis.

To develop ideals, however, is merely the first step in social change. Folkways, mores, traditions, laws, artifacts, and institutions must be evaluated in the light of these criteria and then modified to eliminate inconsistencies. Some new cultural patterns have to be invented and tested. The crisis will accelerate social change; pressure groups and cultural lag will retard it.

With our present knowledge of social change, we need not depend on the spontaneous developments of the social processes. Today we can apply what we know of the science of society in social planning.

In a sense, the inter-American program is both a war measure and a laboratory for techniques to be used in the later world-wide reconstruction program.

Nationalism is the general term used to categorize all the factors antagonistic to united action. The roots of nationalism are in social and economic competition and continue through automatic cultural persistence. Like egocentrism, ethnocentrism is a defensive, protective measure which short-cuts competition by assuming superiority. Imperialism and "master-race convictions" are the extremes of ethnocentrism.

Nationalism, which is group prejudice, is learned; therefore cooperative behavior can be learned. The first step is to discover and minimize the factors that seem to justify suspicion, competition, and conflict among nations. The second step is to develop those social processes and structures that will lead to cooperative behavior. The corrective (unlearning) and the positive (learning) programs are simultaneous.

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Economic inequities that seem inherent between agrarian and industrial regions and countries and those that grow out of retarded industrialism, agrarian reform, and natural resource differentials have to be corrected if the assumptions of group superiorities are to be minimized. One important part of the inter American movement is the development of an equitable, interdependent economic pattern. Every one in a city suffers because of its slums; every one in the world suffers if some nations are stratified. The temporary advantages of exploitation do not compensate for the costs of social pathologies.

However, the chief obstacle to inter American cooperation is cultural. We have developed stereotypes, we have generalized from a few contacts, and we have been separated by language, basic culture, and physical barriers to communication—all of which develop and perpetuate prejudgments.

The Motion Picture Society for the Americas, a quasi official body operating in conjunction with the Office of Inter-American Affairs, recommends the modification of films presenting nonrepresentative behavior and attitudes. Warner Brothers was persuaded to withhold Spanish and Portuguese versions of *Juke Girl*, which contained a threatened lynching.

The Pan American Highway (from Fairbanks, Alaska, to Rio de Janeiro) will be over 15,000 miles, with 2,000 miles of alternate highways in South America. Physical isolation is being remedied and exchanges of ideas and specialists are being facilitated.

This issue of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY presents some specific efforts to bring about the free cooperating world for which we are fighting. Educators in all countries, in the final analysis, will carry the real burden of substituting fact, understanding, appreciation, and practice in truly democratic behavior for blind perpetuation of prejudices. The new coöperative relationships among governmental agencies here and with those in the other American countries and their integration with all the educational forces is the first important social change we discover.

Never before has there been a greater challenge and opportunity for the new science of society, sociology. Never before has sociology had to lean so heavily upon one area of specialization—educational sociology.

This issue is dedicated to those who know and want to demonstrate that education and social control can build a better society than coercion and personal control.

J. Y

ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION IN THE INTER-AMERICAN FIELD

JOHN C. PATTERSON

Chief, Division of Inter-American Educational Relations, United States Office of Education

From the time of its inception the Good Neighbor Policy of the United States has not been entirely above suspicion in the hearts of some of our one hundred and thirty million neighbors. Doubts have been encouraged in the minds of men below the Rio Grande by non-Americans who do not wish us well in our good neighborliness in the Americas; and there have also been honest doubts harbored by patriotic sons of the other American republics, sincere men unable to forget past differences, not yet convinced of our sincerity.

The sincerity of the people of the United States in their proclaimed desire for friendship and understanding with the people of the other western republics and the honesty of our Government cannot be more clearly illustrated than by citing the efforts which we are making through education to learn more about our neighbors, their life and their problems. Private funds and public moneys are being spent in large quantities in an effort to provide an American understanding here in the United States. As a matter of fact, far greater amounts of our money are spent on the cause here at home than elsewhere in the Americas for we have realized that our own people are not those least in need of education in inter-American affairs. The impelling motive behind the money spent, behind the efforts made, is not to create good will abroad, though admittedly that should be a by-product; the fundamental reason for our efforts is our desire and our need to understand other men and the worlds in which they live. Not until we have achieved this knowledge will

we be properly equipped to work with those men in building the world of tomorrow. We hope that it may be a better world, one where men may work together honestly and not selfishly to solve problems without resorting to the use of arms.

GOVERNMENT PROGRAM

Any examination of the interest which our Government maintains in fostering a study and understanding of Latin America will reveal a close and encouraging cooperation between our schools and colleges and a number of Government agencies. Chief among the Federal agencies working with the educational institutions are the Department of State, through the Division of Cultural Relations, the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, and the United States Office of Education. These agencies collaborate with one another and with educational institutions in carrying out their projects.

A program of Inter-American Educational Relations for the United States Office of Education must have for its objective the development of a wide understanding of the other American republics and include a variety of activities. One of these is the bringing of our people into closer touch with fellow Americans from the other republics through an exchange program. There can be no wholesale exchange of persons at Government expense, but the Office of Education in cooperation with the Department of State is assisting in bringing professors and students to this country and in sending representative members of similar groups from the United States abroad. Part of the exchanges take place under the terms of the Buenos Aires Convention of 1936, but the larger number fall outside the provisions of that agreement.

On a higher level the Division of Comparative Education is contributing its part to the program by studying educational institutions of Latin America, collecting catalogues and other information relating to the universities and secondary schools of the

southern republics The objective is to aid college and university registrars in evaluating credits of students coming to the United States from the other American republics

Another phase of the program for the development of an American understanding is the preparation or training of persons to participate as leaders in the movement. This activity includes conferences and institutes at teachers colleges and other institutions of higher education, cooperation in developing curriculum workshops, and a program of demonstration centers.

TEACHING AIDS

Aid must be given to teachers embarking, for the first time, on a program of inter-American study by assisting them in the selection of materials and in the development of ways and means to use them. The demonstration centers have been particularly useful in this respect. Lists and materials which are helpful at different levels and in special areas of study are prepared in the Office and given wide distribution. A large number of bulletins, units, and pamphlets developed by outside agencies, both public and private, have been made available through the coöperation of the Office of the Coordinator and may be secured, upon request, from the School Service Section of the Division of Inter-American Educational Relations of the Office of Education.

The Library Service Division has 150 exhibits of carefully selected books and other materials which deal with the other American republics These exhibits are lent for a period of two weeks upon the receipt of applications from educational institutions. A packet service has been established also and it has made available several hundred packets of inexpensive items in the inter-American field. These are lent free of charge for a period of two weeks. The packets are designed to assist teachers of social studies, Spanish, etc, as well as Pan American Club sponsors to find inexpensive materials to meet their special needs.

DIVISION OF INTER-AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RELATIONS

In December 1941, the United States Commissioner of Education announced the creation of a new division in the Office, the Division of Inter-American Educational Relations. This was brought about by an expansion of the section on exchanges of persons which previously had been a part of the Division of Higher Education. The enlarged program of the Division includes the unit for the exchanging of persons, the School Service Section, a new section devoted to secondary and elementary teacher exchanges, and one that is engaged in the preparation and distribution of materials in Spanish and English which deal with school practices and educational developments in all the American republics. This Division also offers assistance to Inter-American Clubs and special attention is given to stimulating language studies. The program is designed to give assistance to teachers of English in the other republics and to our own teachers of Spanish and Portuguese in their efforts to develop up-to-date materials that will aid in language study and at the same time serve to develop an American understanding.

The scarcity of accurate materials in English on the other American republics is less pronounced today than it has been in the past, for much that is good has appeared in the last two years, and more is in preparation. The dearth of persons qualified to assume positions of leadership in guiding us to an understanding of our southern neighbors is less acute, but if the goal, an informed American people, is to be reached, the continued and united efforts of Government, laymen, teachers, and students will be needed. Genuine progress in preparing ourselves to cooperate with other men and women in the other American republics has been registered, but we still are far from the final objective at a time when understanding and coöperation are being brought to the test.

THE CULTURAL-RELATIONS PROGRAM OF THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE

CHARLES A. THOMSON

Chief, Division of Cultural Relations, Department of State

The program of the Department of State in the field of cultural relations seeks to develop between the United States and foreign peoples that reciprocal understanding essential to harmonious political relationship and to the most effective cooperation in peace and war. For both the present period of conflict and the subsequent peace the principal objectives are improved mutual understanding, the removal of barriers to cultural intercourse, and the promotion of a free interchange of thought and achievements through scientific, technical, and educational advancement, the arts and the press, motion pictures and radio, and visits of leaders in the various fields of knowledge. The creation of the Division of Cultural Relations in July 1938 followed by slightly more than one year the ratification by our Government of the first official step toward an improved cultural understanding among the peoples of this hemisphere: the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations, signed at Buenos Aires in 1936.

In 1938 an Interdepartmental Committee on Cooperation with the American republics was also created in Washington. This Committee was established at the instance of the President to examine the subject of cooperation with the other American republics, and to prepare a concrete program for rendering closer and more effective the relationships between our people and their neighbors in the other American countries. It is composed of representatives of the Department of Agriculture, Department of Commerce, Export-Import Bank, Federal Communications Commission, Federal Security Agency (Office of Education and Public Health Serv-

ice), Federal Works Agency (Public Roads Administration), Department of the Interior, Department of Justice, Department of Labor, Library of Congress, Navy Department (United States Coast Guard), Office of the Coordinator of Inter American Affairs, Smithsonian Institution, Tariff Commission, Treasury Department, War Shipping Administration, and the Department of State. The numerous and varied fields of activity in which the Interdepartmental Committee operates embrace inter-American educational relations, including assistance in fellowships and professorship exchanges, increased cooperation among inter-American scientific institutions, fellowships in the sciences related to public health, cooperation in the fields of maternal and child health and the social and economic welfare of working women; surveys of strategic minerals; ethnological studies; tidal investigations, gravity observations, conservation of flora and fauna; the establishment of an archive of the fine arts of the Americas; and the translation of Government publications into Spanish and Portuguese for distribution in the American republics.

Related to this activity is the loan of civilian experts and technicians to assist the governments of the other American republics at their specific request, under the Act of May 3, 1939 (Public No. 63, 76th Congress). Such assistance has ranged from improvements in immigration procedure, customs tariff, and statistics to matters of commercial policy, taxation, monetary problems, fishery research, and child welfare.

The Department's program in cultural relations in general is not geographically restricted to this hemisphere. At present, it is carrying on a comprehensive cultural program with China, for instance, and efforts are directed toward furthering cultural relations with others of the United Nations and with neutral countries.

The principal activities of the Department of State through the Division of Cultural Relations are as follows:

1. The travel grant program for persons of influence in the pro-

fessions, education, arts, and sciences, which aims at a diffusion of understanding and mutual knowledge among the Americas through the establishment of personal relations between intellectual and scientific leaders in the New World

2. Travel grants to professors, to satisfy requests from universities in the other American republics for the services of professors from the United States, and vice versa.

3. Travel grants to students, to overcome one of the principal obstacles to a larger flow of students between the United States and the other American republics—the cost of travel These grants are awarded to supplement fellowships or scholarships granted by universities.

4. The administration, in cooperation with the Office of Education, of the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations, providing for exchange of students and professors among the ratifying countries Fifteen of the twenty-one American republics have ratified the convention, and over seventy awards have been made since January 1940.

5. Cooperation with cultural institutes established in the other American republics, principally by nationals of those countries, to promote closer cultural relations with the United States. Twenty-two cultural institutes and three libraries of United States books are located in the principal cities of thirteen of the other American republics and constitute important local centers of intellectual interchange. In the light of recent international developments, these cultural institutes and libraries are being strengthened by coöperation and financial assistance on the part of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs Most of them now provide sponsorship of radio programs, concerts, lectures, and exhibits, engage in the organized teaching of English, and, in some cases, of Spanish and Portuguese to resident Americans; maintain a library of United States books and magazines, offer hospitality to visiting citizens of the United States; aid in the selection of students for travel and study in the

United States; publish bulletins of activities, and advise United States students working in the other American republics

6. In cooperation with the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, the interchange of books and publications between the United States and the other American republics.

7. The distribution of suitable educational and documentary motion pictures—a program of growing importance and of great value in reaching large groups of people

8 In the field of radio, cooperation with the international broadcasting companies; cooperation with national and other broadcasting companies and institutions in the United States on programs about the other American republics; and cooperation with Government agencies in the preparation and planning of cultural radio programs and projects.

9. Supervision of the cultural-relations officers recently appointed to many of our diplomatic missions in the other American republics. These officers assist the head of the mission in matters of cultural significance and keep the Department of State informed of local developments in the cultural fields.

On another page in this number of THE JOURNAL Mr. Blackwell discusses in detail the program of the Office of the Coordinator, operating in close cooperation with the work in this hemisphere of the Division of Cultural Relations In the cultural field, a Joint Committee, made up of representatives of the Department of State, the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, and private agencies, meets weekly in Washington to discuss programs of action in order to avoid overlapping and see that responsibility is fixed where it should be.

Specifically, the Department's program in cultural relations helps implement the Good Neighbor Policy and extend its mutual benefits to liberty-loving peoples everywhere, and so build toward democracy in education and ampler opportunity and justice for all in the enduring peace of the world of the future.

SUMMARY OF THE ACTIVITIES OF THE DIVISION OF SCIENCE AND EDUCATION OF THE OFFICE OF THE COORDINATOR OF INTER-AMERICAN AFFAIRS

R. I. BLACKWELL

Associate Director, Division of Science and Education, Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs

The Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs was established by executive order of July 30, 1941, within the Office for Emergency Management. This executive order which superseded that of August 16, 1940, setting up the Office of the Coordinator of Commercial and Cultural Relations between the American republics, not only changed the name, but also redefined the duties and responsibilities of the Office. Broadly, the Office was charged with the responsibility of formulating and executing "programs in the commercial and economic fields, which, by the effective use of governmental and private facilities, will further the commercial well-being of the Western Hemisphere." Further, it was charged with the responsibility of formulation of programs "which, by effective use of governmental and private facilities, in such fields as the arts and sciences, education and travel, the radio, the press, and the cinema, will further the national defense and strengthen the bonds between the nations of the Western Hemisphere."

From the inception of the Office, education has been emphasized in the various phases of the program, both in the United States and in the other American republics. An educational advisory committee was appointed by Mr Nelson A Rockefeller, Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. Members of the committee are Dr. John S Studebaker, Commissioner of the United States Office of Education, Dr George F Zook, President of the American Council on Education; Dr. Willard E. Givens, Executive Secretary of the National Education Association; Dr. George F. Johnson, Director of the Edu-

cation Department of the National Catholic Welfare Conference; Superintendent Frederick H. Bair of Bronxville, New York, and as chairman, Dr. Luther Gulick of the National Resources Planning Board. Kenneth Holland is director of the Division of Science and Education and R. F. Blackwell is associate director. Offices of this Division are in the Commerce Department Building, Washington, D. C.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The Division considers its function distinctly as one of correlation and seeks to implement its program wherever possible through other governmental agencies, such as the Cultural Relations Division of the Department of State and the United States Office of Education, as well as through existing privately financed educational organizations.

Many national educational and general welfare agencies have been engaged for many years in various types of activities designed to give the youth of the United States a better understanding of our neighbors. Among such organizations are the Pan American Union, the Institute of International Education, the Catholic Education Association, the American Council on Education, the National Education Association and its allied organizations, the Progressive Education Association, the American Junior Red Cross, and many similar groups. Many school systems and several colleges and universities have established special curriculum and administrative units in the area of inter-American affairs.

The aim of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs is to coördinate and in some cases supplement the work of existing organizations. The Office will help in every way possible in order that organizations already working in this area may continue and expand the work they have under way and will encourage the initiation of new projects that seem to offer effective ways in

which to create a wider understanding and appreciation of our neighbors to the south.

The primary objectives of the Division of Science and Education are:

1. To stimulate in all the schools of the United States additional study of our neighbors to the south—the history, geography, and government of their countries; the economic and social conditions and problems of the other American republics, the languages, arts, and customs of our neighbors, their relations with the United States and the other nations of the world.

2. To encourage and supervise the preparation and distribution of study units, teaching aids, pamphlets, and other materials dealing with the other Americas which will be of help to teachers in the United States.

3. To encourage the preparation and distribution of materials dealing with the United States for use in the schools of the other Americas, working in close cooperation with the official educational organizations in those countries.

4. To encourage and assist the exchange of students among the twenty-one American republics.

5. To encourage and sponsor the study of educational programs and problems in the other American republics and to assist in every way possible the educational leaders in these republics.

FUNCTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

The program falls into two major categories: one is the responsibility for acquainting youth in the United States with the other American republics; the other is the task of helping inform persons in the other American republics about the United States.

One of the most important functions of the Office is that of stimulating an interest among the teachers and school children of the United States in studying the other American republics. This objective has been furthered in a number of projects, some of which are:

The publication of *Among Us*, an official newsletter of the Committee on International Relations of the National Education Asso-

ciation. This bulletin, issued five times a year and mailed without cost to 50,000 school teachers and administrators, contains information concerning available teaching aids in the inter-American field and news of value to teachers who are concerned with the inter-American program.

The establishment in the Office of Education of a distribution center to which teachers may write for free teaching materials on any subject related to inter American affairs.

The preparation and distribution of a bibliography under the auspices of the Pan American Union, *Children of the Other Americas.* This is a valuable annotated list of references on various subjects of interest to elementary- and junior high-school students. A syllabus for teachers was prepared under the auspices of the American Council on Education and distributed to teachers interested in background reading on inter-American affairs *Latin American Backgrounds,* a bibliography prepared by the National Education Association, has been made available to teachers A series of pamphlets on Latin American life for school children has been prepared under the auspices of the Pan American Union Under the guidance of Mr. Richard M. Perdew of Bronxville, study units for elementary and secondary schools have been prepared and distributed. The Office of Education prepared and distributed a bulletin, *Inter-American Friendship Through the Schools,* which describes various inter-American activities in operation in schools throughout the United States.

The Office of Education has prepared 150 exhibits of teaching materials on the other Americas. These exhibits are loaned without charge to schools upon request for a period of two weeks These exhibits have been loaned to more than one thousand schools throughout the United States Displays have been arranged for important educational conferences by the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs in coöperation with the National Education Association, the Office of Education, the Pan American Union, and other

important educational agencies interested in the inter-American program.

During the summer months consultants on various phases of inter-American studies conferred with teachers in leading teacher-training institutions. These summer institutes were under the supervision of the Office of Education

Approximately thirty demonstration centers in various sections of the United States were maintained during the year 1941–1942 under the auspices of the Office of Education. These centers were established to demonstrate under actual classroom conditions the development of teaching methods and study units in inter-American relations.

A list of recordings and motion pictures on the other Americas was prepared and distributed by the American Council on Education.

During the summer months of 1942, three courses of study were developed by Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University. Two experimental groups of students were used in developing these study units which will be available for distribution to teachers through the Office of Education Distribution Center by November first.

These are typical of the educational activities within the United States which have been supported by the Science and Education Division of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. It is not a complete list.

In addition to these activities which are primarily for elementary and secondary schools, a number of projects in the field of higher education have been assisted by the Science and Education Division. Some of the college and university activities are a series of lectures on inter-American subjects before the students of certain universities, the support of the Latin American Institute at the University of Texas and also assistance to the Princeton University program in Latin American studies; assistance in providing special opportu-

nities for study to groups of students from the other Americas at the University of North Carolina, University of Pennsylvania, and Columbia University, a special program for training prospective teachers of English in the other American republics at the University of Michigan; and a special summer workshop in inter American affairs at Mills College. Assistance was given to bring delegates from the other Americas to Ann Arbor, Michigan, for the 1941 conference of the New Education Fellowship

Support has been given to various programs for an exchange of personnel among the American republics and a clearing house for scholarships, fellowships, and exchanges has been established in the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs

Steps are being taken to encourage a sound educational growth in the teaching of Spanish and Portuguese in the United States and the Office of Coordinator maintains on its staff a consultant on language study.

Teachers from all types of schools throughout the United States are invited to write for any desired teaching aids on inter-American subjects. Such requests should be addressed to the Division of Inter-American Educational Relations, United States Office of Education, Interior Building, Washington, D C. The requests should state the grade level or subject for which material is desired.

FUNCTIONS IN THE OTHER AMERICAN REPUBLICS

The program within the United States is only one phase of the work of the Division of Science and Education of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs A second phase is the educational programs in the other American republics Chief among these programs is that of encouraging the study of English in the schools and by adults in our neighboring nations, and of coöperating in every way possible with schools in the other Americas. Materials consisting of books, pamphlets, magazines, visual

aids, and other instructional helps are being supplied upon request to schools in the other Americas

In many of the other American republics there are Cultural Institutes organized to foster the dissemination of knowledge of the cultural aspects of the United States and many of these Institutes are receiving assistance from the Office of the Coordinator.

Recently there has come a demand from some of our neighbors for assistance in vocational education and the Science and Education Division is now working on a program in this area to meet such demands.

Hundreds of outstanding intellectual and scientific leaders from all the other American republics have been brought to the United States for study, travel, and observation in their fields of special interest.

The entire program of the Science and Education Division is based upon the belief that individuals and nations become "good neighbors" after they learn to know each other, to understand each other's point of view, and, at all times, to respect each other's right to political and intellectual freedom.

To this end the Office pledges its support to all recognized agencies, governmental and private, working in the field of inter-American relations and invites the active coöperation of all persons and agencies interested in expanded relations among the American republics.

Intensive work in the English language, for Latin Americans whose governments have sent them to the United States on special missions or as students, is now provided free of charge in Washington, D. C This program is under the sponsorship of the Public Schools of the District of Columbia, the Americanization School Association, and the National Education Association, in cooperation with the Office of Inter-American Affairs

WHAT IS THE INTER-AMERICAN DEMONSTRATION CENTER PROJECT?

HELEN K. MACKINTOSH

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The question raised by the title of this article is frequently asked by correspondents and by visitors to the United States Office of Education. In answer, the project is one made possible by the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs for the purpose of emphasizing inter-American studies in the educational program of elementary and secondary schools, teachers colleges, and universities. There are thirty spots on the map of the United States representing school systems or colleges that have a loosely organized working relationship among themselves, and a more definite relation to the United States Office of Education through field representatives of whom there were three working in as many sections of the country during the first six months of 1942.

BEGINNINGS OF THE PROJECT

In the late fall of 1941 a number of schools which were already engaged in inter-American activities, or which had been recommended by State superintendents of public instruction, were invited to coöperate with the United States Office of Education in developing a program for the study of the other American republics. Such a program was designed to result in better understanding and greater appreciation of our neighbors to the south, on the part of boys and girls, young people in high schools, and young men and women of college level. These centers were spotted throughout the country from New York to California and from Michigan to Texas.

A few centers consisted of a single school, or a small school system, or several schools in a large city system. More were represented by a teachers college or university allied with city schools, or with

schools and colleges within a radius of 50 to 100 miles County systems of schools, State departments of education, and parochial schools represented other types As shown in one of the articles that follows, a center with its cooperating units sometimes consisted of as many as half a hundred schools. In this day and age when the principle of variation is stressed in contrast to a set pattern of education, the centers that constituted the project were so individual that there was no typical center. Each had its own organization and program of activities developed in the light of needs, resources, and interests.

BASIS FOR THE PROGRAM

The Office of Education, since it is essentially a service organization, had no set program to impose. Instead it offered leadership in the form of field representatives who had the qualifications primarily of good supervisors, but who had a genuine interest and some background of experience with things Latin American. These staff members had arrived at some common understandings through preliminary conferences in which they had discussed the possibilities for the program, and had exposed themselves to many points of view in terms of persons in Washington connected with inter-American programs.

Such principles as the following were adopted as guides to thinking and discussion with persons in local centers:

1. The program should be a continuous one beginning with children in early elementary grades and continuing into the college level.
2. The program should cut across all subject-matter lines, including every aspect of the school program which could emphasize the other American republics in a natural rather than a forced way.
3. The program should be integrated into the ongoing school activities wherever possible, rather than introduced as a new subject or unit.
4. The program should be adapted to the maturity of the children concerned.
5. The program should emphasize understanding and appreciation of Spanish-speaking people in the communities related to the project

CENTERS AT WORK

After a preliminary conference of a week in Washington, the field representatives and the office coordinator of the project visited several prospective centers as a group. Then each representative began initial visits to centers in his area. He worked through a local coordinator who was usually assisted by a steering committee representing all school levels and interests. Sometimes lay citizens were members of this group, and in several instances students were also included. During the period January through June 1942, field representatives visited the centers approximately three times each. They sent to the office diary records of their visits, which in turn were used as a basis for a series of exchange letters to centers.

Many units of work were organized and sent in, but they served their most important purpose in stimulating the thinking of the teachers who developed them. These tangible outcomes will be shared with the other centers in some duplicated form in terms of those materials that make a unique contribution.

Many units now produced are of the subject matter type, but there is a trend toward the experience unit which organizes content around such themes as "Travel by Air to South America" or "Establishing Friendship and Understanding Between Spanish speaking and English-speaking Children."

TYPES OF ACTIVITIES

Specific details of center activities are shown in the San Bernardino County report. But in all centers teachers and boys and girls showed ingenuity in adapting materials and purposes to the situation as they found it. In Redlands, California, all available materials for loan were assembled in a vacant classroom so that teachers might see these as a unit and might borrow items for individual use. Assembled here were also some of the records of children's work.

In Albuquerque, New Mexico, students in a senior history class

decided to take an inventory of all available library materials in their city. They divided themselves into three committees: one to list all books on the other American republics that were to be found in the school libraries, a second to do the same for the public library, and the third for the University of New Mexico Library. The result was a card-indexed file of approximately 600 cards cross referenced to show author, country, and topic. The file was made available to all people in the community who were interested in using it

In Detroit, Michigan, a tea was given for high-school teachers of the city who had traveled in the other American republics. Invited also were persons from South and Central American countries now living in Detroit.

Many centers kept scrapbooks of publicity in relation to the project. Conferences, workshops, use of motion pictures and radio, a lecture series open to the public, special library collections, and museum exhibits were among the activities that were varied in unique ways.

OUTCOMES

The values of the project are difficult to set down on paper. The activities enumerated are outward evidences of inward growth. In submitting final reports centers have indicated that changes in point of view have developed in teachers and students with respect to the other American republics; that the inter-American idea has been incorporated in all subjects at all levels where the connection is a natural one; that in-service and pre-service programs for teacher education are being modified; and that they have adopted the program on a long-time rather than on an emergency basis.

INITIATING A PROGRAM FOR EMPHASIZING INTER-AMERICAN FRIENDSHIP IN THE SCHOOLS

WILLIAM F. MELCHIOR

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The Inter-American Demonstration Center Project is a dynamic example of what can be accomplished when the administrator leads the way in effecting those conditions which encourage all members of the school organization to use their special resources and capacities. Throughout the United States, teachers, principals, supervisors, college deans, and heads of departments have contributed time, effort, and material resources to the promotion of inter-American understanding. The result is tangibly reflected in changed programs and schedules, conferences, workshops, and a wide range of instructional aids.

The program was initiated in the fall of 1941 as a phase of wartime emergency education by the United States Office of Education in coöperation with the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. The Commissioner of Education first invited State Superintendents of Public Instruction to recommend as possible demonstration centers any schools in their respective systems which had already shown interest in cultures and relationships of the western hemisphere. Subsequently he issued requests to the administrators of the recommended schools for a description of their work in this area and a statement as to whether they would like to work as demonstration centers for the remainder of the fiscal year.

The staff of the Inter-American Education Demonstration Center Project formulated tentative criteria for selecting and organizing

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the centers. In January and February 1942 the field representatives visited the proposed centers.

THE LOCAL PROGRAM EVOLVES

The local administrator either retained for himself or delegated administrative responsibility to a qualified individual who served as the local coordinator. Together they selected persons to form a nucleus for a central committee to assist in policy forming and planning.

In all cases the general purpose of the national program was presented and accepted. This general purpose was "to assist teachers at the elementary, secondary and collegiate levels in developing a sound educational program as one means for realizing understanding of and appreciation for the other American cultures and destiny."

Local plans centered about one or more of these activities. (1) clarifying purpose, (2) identifying and introducing to each other the various persons and groups in the community capable of contributing significantly to the program, (3) developing plans for releasing these potentialities, (4) locating and putting to work the available local resources for developing the program.

The local coordinator and his committee at once instituted a preliminary survey for definite information about these typical aspects of the problem:

1. What activities bearing on inter-American understanding and friendly relations are present in school and community?
2. What courses may be expanded to include some phase of the inter-American problem? Where can and should substitutions be made? What new courses are needed? At what levels can these course changes be effected without violating educational principles?
3. Who can contribute as organizers, as sources of specialized information, as experimentalists for innovations?
4. What books, pamphlets, and firsthand study sources are available?
5. To what extent can talents of school personnel be capitalized upon

and coordinated for administrative, secretarial, or experimental teaching service?

6. To what extent can finances and equipment now available take on, or make substitutions to include, added services?

7. What individuals and private and public agencies can cooperate to advantage?

8. How can the developing phases of the continuing program be met, resulting achievements evaluated and shared from time to time?

ADMINISTRATIVE PATTERNS DIFFER

Methods for arriving at the answers to these questions varied in procedure and outcomes in terms of such factors as these: the personality and technique of the local coordinator, the quality and extent of human and other available resource materials, the absence or presence of resistance to new social ideas, the amount of time required for "thawing out" the prevailing academic pattern, the spread of already existing interest in and knowledge of the Americas among teachers and community leaders.

A brief consideration of three situations will illustrate common administrative procedures. A university through its local coordinator, appointed by the dean from the school of education, arranged for the initial meeting three weeks in advance of the date. Participants included city and county school superintendents, principals, the deans of two near-by teachers colleges and of another university, a representative of the United States Office of Education, and deans or heads of departments of colleges on the campus.

The four-session conference opened with a symposium by eight heads of university departments on "What can my department contribute to the general program of inter-American education and particularly to pre-service and in-service teacher education?" Most of the participants had spent some years in one or more of the other American countries as specialists in engineering, agriculture, or commerce.

In the second session the school administrators considered these

problems. "What can we contribute to the national program?" and "How can we use the university staff in our in-service teacher education program?" At the closing session discussion was led by representatives of the State Department of Education, the United States Office of Education, and the cooperating colleges.

In the light of the total discussion a small committee headed by the local coordinator drafted tentative plans involving both immediate and long-time objectives. Letters embodying these were sent by the local coordinator to the cooperating school administrators. Soon the program was under way on the university campus, in the local school system, in near-by county, village, and city schools, and colleges within a radius of 75 miles.

A STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE INITIATES ITS PROGRAM

The president of a State teachers college invited the entire professional staff to confer with the field representative of the United States Office of Education. The purpose and need for a national program were explained. The local coordinator, previously selected by the president in this case, led an informal discussion to clear up points and to foster free expression of opinion.

Small groups then volunteered to survey: (1) personnel, on and off campus, informed on inter-American affairs or holding strategic positions in the local education program; (2) other college resources —library and departmental equipment materials; (3) community resources—public and private museum and art collections, commercial stores and shops, and programs of social, educational, and service clubs.

The cursory survey occupied approximately a week at the end of which tentative reports were presented to the staff as a whole. Given freedom and encouragement all committees zestfully pursued their respective objectives as each step opened up new fields for exploration. For example, the personnel survey expanded and became more detailed to include local persons interested in different aspects of

inter-American affairs--composers, painters, writers, lecturers, forum leaders, ceramists, architects, agriculturists, musicians, home economists, costume designers, interior decorators, radio commentators, photographers, dancers, teachers, and industrialists. Another instance is that of the already functioning curriculum group which worked with heads of departments and teachers listing possible areas for enrichment of curricula through inter-American materials.

A CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM

In a city school system the superintendent brought together a group of approximately 27 people representing various levels and departments to serve as a planning committee. Added to this group were the county superintendent of schools, a representative of the State department of education, a representative of a private Americanization agency in the community, and the field representative who was making her first visit in the area. This group, sitting in conference, attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What are the Phoenix Union High Schools and Junior College now doing to promote the Good Neighbor Policy?
2. What are the plans and services of the United States Office of Education in the development of the Inter-American Demonstration Center Project?
3. How can the present program of the Phoenix Union High Schools be extended to provide increased opportunity for students to understand and appreciate the other American republics?

Each person present had an opportunity to express his opinion with regard to these questions. A summary of these statements was used as a starting point in planning the local program.

ADMINISTRATIVE TECHNIQUES WHICH IMPLEMENTED THE PROGRAM

The experience of the most effective local groups leads to the conclusion that a school initiating changes in the instructional

pattern should demonstrate, among others, the following major techniques:

1 Give early attention to the appointment and delegation of authority to a unifying executive and/or advisory organization composed of a local coordinator and representatives of professional and lay groups (The local coordinator must be chosen with reference to his knowledge of the local personnel, interest in the curriculum and organization, skill in human engineering, and available time and resources for executive detail)

2. Allow time for regular meetings of members of planning and advisory groups.

3 Make groups emphasizing the inter-American aspects of the school program, in so far as possible, identical with, or have them work as a part of, any already functioning professional committees.

4 Determine the breadth and depth of the inter-American emphasis by local conditions

5 Emphasize the fact that promotion of inter-American aspects of general education will provide a sound basis for curriculum study, the use of local resources, closer coordination of entire professional staff and students.

6 Try to render the services desired by any individual or coöperating group For example, at the very outset make available on as wide a scope as possible such basic reference sources as books, pamphlets, photographs, realia, musical recordings, films, slides, maps, prints

7. Plan to use all desirable potential human and other resources bearing on the many aspects of inter-American cultural education.

8. Observe the principles of cooperative and creative supervision in coordinating the efforts and resources of professors, instructors, principals, and supervisors to work with classroom teachers, remembering that although stimulation may come from outside forces true growth comes from within the individual, the school, and the system.

9. Visualize each center as an ever enlarging center where the interests of additional cooperating groups from contiguous areas are met

10 Search constantly for those experiences that lead to positive attitudes, authentic concepts, the elimination of superficial teaching, and the development of sound techniques for happy and successful group interaction.

The procedures listed here are typical of good practices followed by administrators—local superintendents, county superintendents, curriculum directors, State, city, and county supervisors, directors of training schools, presidents of teachers colleges, and others who made it possible for the Inter-American Demonstration Center Project to get under way in their communities.

With present day events highlighting the importance of real understanding among nations, efforts are being made to correct the more common misconceptions about North Americans. This is particularly true in the case of Latin America.

Evidence of interest along these lines has been the move to set up libraries of United States culture in Hispanic America. Such an institution organized by the American Library Association was launched in Mexico City in April, the Benjamin Franklin Library. Another is to be established in Managua, Nicaragua. A third will be opened in Montevideo, Uruguay, in the near future. Arthur P. Gropp, librarian of the Middle American Research Institute at Tulane University, New Orleans, has been employed by the American Council of Learned Societies and is now in Montevideo to establish and direct the library.

Mr. Gropp has also served as chairman of the American Library Association Committee on Library Cooperation with Latin America. This Committee, working under a grant of $50,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation, concluded a three-year study of Latin American activities earlier this year. One of its major aims has been the creation of a wider knowledge and understanding of North American culture in Latin American countries. As a result of its studies the Committee found that books in English and Spanish on North America have not been available to the general public—with the result, they concluded, that the average Latin American has a warped picture of United States customs and habits.

The Committee also discovered that United States libraries in California, Oregon, and Washington have the largest book collections on Latin America. Next in order were the States of Arizona, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. Interest seemed to be at its lowest ebb in the northwestern States, exclusive of Washington and Oregon. Cities whose public libraries reported the largest collections were Los Angeles, Minneapolis, Jersey City, and St. Louis.

COMMUNITY RESPONSE TO INTER-AMERICAN EDUCATION ACTIVITY

BERTHA PACKUS

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Somewhere in her daily column Mrs. Roosevelt expressed the hope that hemisphere solidarity through friendship and understanding might become a people's movement. Doubtless, Mrs. Roosevelt had in mind the same thought which Señor Gonzalo Blanco Macías, Agricultural Attaché of the Mexican Embassy in Washington, D. C., expressed in a speech at a Latin American fiesta in Altus, Oklahoma, May 13, 1942: "We people of the Americas have the same ideals, we love the same freedom; our destinies are the same; danger for one is danger for all."

"Common ideals," a sense of "common destiny," and threat of common danger are powerful forces operating to bring peoples of the western hemisphere into closer relationship and better understanding. But *fraternal relations and mutual understanding must* be rooted in knowledge of the cultures of our neighboring republics and in accurate information about their national life. Such knowledge and information were not generally disseminated among the people of the United States when the threat of common danger suddenly made us aware of our neighbors to the south. The story of the collection and dissemination of information about the other American republics, but more especially the story of the response of community groups toward understanding the people of Latin America, is one of the most interesting chapters in American education.

Informal but powerful educational agencies, such as motion pictures, radio chains, travel agencies, publishers, all have responded

* On leave January–June 1942 as field representative of the Inter-American Demonstration Center Project of the United States Office of Education.

to the people's demand for information; national organizations with civic and educational programs have sought to translate this information into understanding and a feeling of good neighborliness; Government agencies have set up a program for collecting and disseminating information about the other Americas

PROJECTS OF GOVERNMENT AGENCIES

For the most part these numerous activities have not been centered in the schools. The Demonstration Center Project of the United States Office of Education was an attempt to focus all of this information and activity upon the enrichment of the educational program. In the area of community activities much groundwork had already been done by the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. On April 1, 1941, representatives of 26 national women's organizations met in conference with the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs "to consider a program that would further the defense effort and serve as a permanent extension of the good neighbor program"

Three of the four major fields of effort agreed upon are directly related to a sound program of school and community cooperation and have received major emphasis in the Demonstration Center Project.

Field representatives from the United States Office of Education found local groups of these national organizations very helpful in establishing the Demonstration Center Project. Local leaders served with school officials on the "planning or steering" committee for each center. Where school funds were not available they financed the purchase of books for children's use. Travelers loaned their treasures to bring together an exhibit of the art and culture of the "other Americas" Every center found some traveler in its midst who was willing to talk with social-science classes in the school and to share pictures brought back from trips.

EXAMPLES OF COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

The Demonstration Center at Terre Haute, Indiana, made an inventory of all of its citizens who had traveled in the other American republics. The school radio program built around the "Good Neighbor" theme plans to feature a series of interviews in which students and citizens will be brought together for discussion of inter-American problems.

The need for securing adequate speakers on inter-American relations was met by centers in many ways Universities having in their midst a group of Latin American students have been quick to see the twofold value of having these students go as speakers to community groups. Latin American students at the University of Michigan have organized themselves into a club that (1) speaks for Latin America in university circles and (2) provides speakers for community programs. Latin American students at the University of Florida put on a weekly radio program that is broadcast to the entire State. Notre Dame has organized a series of panel-discussion programs using Latin American students and students from the United States. These panel groups have gone into colleges and high schools all through the Middle West stimulating study and discussion wherever they are heard.

Women's organizations have cooperated in bringing to the United States distinguished women from other American republics. Clubs in Muncie, Indiana, shared these speakers with students of the high school by making it possible for the speakers to appear at a school assembly The Planners Club of Detroit shows concerted community action at its best.

On April 14, 1942, representatives from 33 city-wide organizations met in an all-day conference to consider ways and means of furthering inter-American understanding through their programs for 1943 While this was not the first meeting of the Planners Club,

it was the first time all organizations had concentrated upon one subject of study. The public library brought to the conference an exhibit of available books and materials. The Children's Museum used the exhibit from the Library Service Division of the United States Office of Education as the nucleus for an exhibit of realia. Groups from public schools provided music. The program committee arranged a series of nine "resource meetings" on various phases of inter-American study. Prominent Latin Americans living in Detroit and its environs sat on the panels of these "resource groups" and gave invaluable assistance to inquiring program planners. As a climax to a most stimulating program, Madam Milla Domienguez, wife of the Consul from Mexico, sang a group of Mexican songs.

Distinguished representatives of the other American republics serving their governments in the United States have been most generous in giving time to community functions. Happily, children have been stimulated to make friends of the many Spanish speaking children within their own neighborhoods.

ACTIVITIES IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

The programs described are being carried on in large cities. The Department of Agriculture working through the divisions of Agricultural Adjustment Administration and Foreign Agricultural Relations has a unique program for bringing the Good Neighbor Policy to rural communities. More than half the people of the western hemisphere live in rural communities. It is important that the farmers of the Americas become aware of each other. Using all local groups of the farm community, its county organization, its 4–H clubs, its fairs, its parades, and other means, the Department of Agriculture has created a fiesta program which centers attention upon our neighbors to the south. The central feature of the fiesta is an exhibit sent out by the Department of Agriculture which is displayed by business firms in the community. During the dates of the

fiesta the people live the life of a Latin American community. Motion-picture houses show Latin American films, local papers feature news and information about Latin American republics; school children learn songs, dances, and games; bands play Latin American music The fiesta closes with a mass meeting at which a distinguished Latin American is the principal speaker

The first fiesta was held in Greenfield, Iowa, on Pan American Day, April 14, 1941. During that year 14 similar fiestas were held in Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, Colorado, California, and Florida. The significance of the fiesta program was expressed in an editorial in the *Daily Record,* Omaha, Nebraska, May 2, 1941. "On my way back to Omaha, absorbed still in the impressive Pan American celebration, I could not help thinking that the little town of Greenfield, hidden in the heart of the corn belt, might well be recorded in the future as the cradle of true Pan Americanism, of that genuine Pan Americanism that transcends diplomatic protocols and political treaties and becomes a living reality in the hearts and minds of the American people."

The quality of good educational programs is determined by the extent to which they reach out of the school and into the community. The inter-American program more than satisfies this requirement.

Truly a "people's movement" has been born—a movement in which school children and adults, local and national agencies, the people's own organization and institutions unite in activity to bring about good will toward those with whom we share so much of our national heritage.

INTER-AMERICAN FRIENDSHIP THROUGH THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF LOUISIANA

S. R. SIMMONS

Supervisor of Social Studies, State Department of Education, and Local Coordinator, Inter-American Demonstration Center Project for Louisiana

The Inter-American Friendship Program initiated in the State of Louisiana at the beginning of the second semester of the school session 1941–1942 was launched on a State-wide basis.

PURPOSE

The program had two purposes: (1) to help the boys and girls of the elementary- and secondary-school levels to gain through the public schools of the State an attitude of good will toward, and a better understanding and an appreciation of, our neighbors in the other American republics; (2) to secure the aid of the teachers and supervisors and various school units in preparing materials of instruction for continuing a permanent inter-American program in the public schools.

ORGANIZATION

The State supervisor of social studies was appointed coördinator. Other State supervisors assisted in the program wherever possible. The 78 supervisors in the parish and city systems of the State were invited by the State Department of Education to help plan and initiate the program. Their approval was sought before a program was launched throughout Louisiana.

The State librarian and the supervisor of audio-visual aids helped in preparing bibliographies and lists of available films and slides and distributed them to the teachers of the State; the supervisors of Negro education initiated a program in the Negro schools; the physical-education department gave help dealing with Latin American dances; the home-economics department has been active in

seeing that units dealing with Latin American menus and costumes were taught; the music department has encouraged the teaching of Latin American songs and the study of outstanding composers; the primary department has been very active in seeing that units are developed and taught that are appropriate to the grade level of the first three grades; the English supervisor has stressed the introduction of Latin American literature and the study of Latin American writers. The science and commercial supervisors have stressed the teaching of units related to their fields. Furthermore, we have attempted to acquaint the child with the natural environment of the people of the other American republics—their habits, their customs of living, their economic condition, the history of these countries, and the interdependence of the United States and our neighbors to the south.

After the program was launched, the greatest handicaps encountered in the program were the teacher's lack of background and the scarcity of suitable study and teaching materials. Many books and teaching materials were soon collected through the coöperation of the United States Office of Education, the Louisiana State Department of Education, Louisiana State University, the State colleges, and local school units. Louisiana State University and Southwestern Louisiana Institute at Lafayette offered evening courses in Latin American history to the teachers who live near enough to those centers to attend. Courses were offered in Latin American history in all the State colleges and the Louisiana State University during the summer session. The teacher-training departments of the State colleges are having their practice teachers develop and write up at least one unit on some phase of Latin America before they go out in the State to teach

CLASSROOM PRACTICES

The writer visited a number of schools during the time the program was in progress ranging from the two-room school to the

large city school, and had an opportunity to observe many classroom projects. The teachers and pupils in most cases were attempting to make use of every available resource. Practically every classroom presented a South American atmosphere with posters that the pupils had made and collections of pictures that were related to the units of work in progress. A number of classrooms displayed murals that had been painted by pupils and that depicted such scenes as the Mexican market, a fiesta, bull fights, Latin American dances, and the life of the people.

In the primary grades emphasis was placed on reading easy stories, storytelling, dramatization, and construction. Many activities the children engaged in were so directed as to lead to the development of an attitude of good will rather than to factual information. In one small country school the children of the second grade had constructed a Mexican market. As a culminating activity they dressed in Mexican costumes and carried out the theme of market day. In a few of the schools the children had built floating gardens and patios and had prepared some tortillas and tostadas.

The most common practice in the upper elementary grades was developing units of work dealing with some particular aspect of South American history and geography with the idea of developing understandings, appreciations, and attitudes of good will. However, in some cases over-all units were attempted. Much use was made in these grades of news items, motion pictures, slides, and radio broadcasts. In some schools where materials were available the teacher and children prepared their own slides. The opaque projector was used extensively where only study prints were available. The making of pottery of Latin American design and mat and basket weaving were popular activities. The language teachers in a number of schools had their pupils correspond with children of the various countries of South America. The teaching of Spanish in some of the upper intermediate grades was attempted. In the culmination of one unit, the writer observed the dramatization of a

one-act play entitled "The Christ of the Andes" that had been written by a fifth-grade child.

In the history classes of the high-school department America was expanded to include South America as well as North America. A great deal of attention was given to the economic, political, and social phases of their living. Discovery, exploration, colonization, the revolutions in South America, and the drafting of the constitutions of the various countries of the southern hemisphere were integrated with the same phases of North American history. These classes carried on panel discussions and reported on topics dealing with the other American republics. Many of the classes in civics studied the governments of the South American countries, observing their likeness to that of the United States. A number of the commercial geography classes made a study of the chief products of the other Americas, the trade relations, and trade barriers between them and the United States. The home-economics classes prepared and served Latin American lunches and arranged exhibits of clothing and art work. A few of the English classes made a study of Latin American literature and outstanding writers. One school offered a course in shorthand in the Spanish language. A few schools offered a course in Latin American history but the general practice has been to integrate the study of Latin American countries with regular courses now offered in our secondary schools. The high-school departments presented some excellent assembly programs which grew out of work in the classroom.

Some schools more than others made good use of the community as a source of materials. It was not uncommon to find displayed many objects the pupils had borrowed from the homes of persons who had made a collection through visits to Latin American countries. In many instances, lectures were given to the teachers and pupils by people who had traveled in South America. The consuls from the various Latin American countries stationed at New Orleans participated to some extent in programs in the southern part

of the State. The radio station at Louisiana State University had many broadcasts dealing with Latin American nations. Many of these broadcasts were made by students from the other American countries who were attending the Louisiana State University

SUMMARY

An attempt has been made to help the boys and girls develop an attitude of good will, an understanding of the economic, political, and social problems, the trade relations and trade barriers between the United States and the other American republics. Equally important is the development of an appreciation of the art, music, sports, language, and literature of our neighbors to the south with a view to strengthening our cultural ties.

A survey made several months ago by the Office of Inter American Affairs revealed that there were over 3,200 Latin American students in United States colleges and universities during the second semester in 1942, an increase of approximately 500 over figures for the previous year.

Not only are there more Latin American students in the United States, but according to the recently published report of the Conference of Foreign Student Advisers held in Cleveland, Ohio, in April, opportunities here for Latin American students are now greater than ever despite wartime restrictions on travel. The report cites certain concrete steps being taken to solve problems arising from these travel restrictions. It also discusses employment needs of stranded students, selective service regulations, and the necessity for advanced training in specialized fields.

REPORT OF SAN BERNARDINO AREA, CALIFORNIA, INTER-AMERICAN DEMONSTRATION CENTER, JANUARY 20 TO JUNE 1, 1942

RUTH REID

General Supervisor, San Bernardino County Schools

The San Bernardino Area Demonstration Center is located in the southeastern part of the State of California. It includes all the school districts within the boundaries of San Bernardino County comprising a total area of 20,157 square miles, a large portion of which is part of the Mojave Desert. The population is approximately 162,000. The average daily attendance in schools of the county during 1941–1942 was approximately 30,000. Recent research studies show that 44 per cent of the students enrolled come from homes of Mexican parentage. The economic status of the population is low average with the majority of the people engaged in agricultural pursuits. The assessed valuation per unit of average daily attendance is $6,999

There are a total of 64 school districts including 54 elementary districts, 8 high-school districts, and 2 junior-college districts. There is also one privately endowed university. Of the 54 elementary-school districts, 2 are governed by city boards of education, 9 are administered by district superintendents, and the remaining 43 are districts of less than 300 average daily attendance, and are directly supervised by the county superintendent of schools. Only one of the high schools is governed by a city board of education. Two of the high-school districts have small branch high schools in remote areas, and these two and one other are located in the desert area All of the high schools are union districts which include several elementary-school districts. One of the junior colleges is administered with a high-school district, and the other is a separate junior-college district.

The program of inter-American relations, as presented to rep-

resentative educators from these various schools by the field representative from the United States Office of Education, was most enthusiastically received. It was not, however, a new idea to this section of California—extensive and systematic work along these same lines had been carried on for many years. This project, however, served as an impetus to concentrate our efforts and to broaden the scope considerably. It also served to bring together all levels of education—elementary, secondary, junior college, and university—as we worked together on a common problem.

The university, one junior college, three districts administered by a superintendent, and 49 elementary- and high-school districts supervised by the office of the county superintendent of schools developed materials which are included in this report. A total of 1,300 teachers actively participated.

The coördinator selected for this center was a general supervisor in the office of the county superintendent of schools. It was found that one half her time was needed for carrying on this project. To relieve her of this part of her regular duties, an additional part-time supervisor was employed at a cost of approximately $500. It was found necessary to employ a part-time secretary at approximately $50 a month. Necessary supplies for the administering of the project, long-distance calls, stationery, and mimeograph supplies totaled approximately $50. These funds represented the contribution of the county to the project.

Planning committee. The planning committee which directed the activities of the center was composed of representative educators in the area. This committee met three times at the call of the coordinator. At the last meeting, the group decided to share some of the most worth-while activities of their respective schools in developing inter-American understanding.

Advisory committee. Because of the wide scope of the project, it seemed necessary to have an advisory committee also, representing the press, radio, clergy, service clubs, and Latin American nationals

This committee has been very active and has done much to forward the program by bringing the activities of the center to the attention of lay organizations throughout the area.

Consulting services. As the project developed, the first major problem was helping teachers acquire the essential cultural information necessary for the basic understandings of the other American people Individual members of the University of Redlands and the San Bernardino Junior College faculties, as well as faculty members of the Claremont Colleges Demonstration Center, served as consultants. Many of the teachers attended the conference held at the University of California at Los Angeles and received valuable help.

Art. A comprehensive bibliography on Latin American art was prepared by Miss Margaret Erdt, art supervisor of the San Bernardino City Schools. This bibliography included 20 books, 10 portfolios, 14 plates, 39 magazine articles, 7 pamphlets, and 102 contemporary artists including painters, sculptors, and print makers with the reference to where reproductions of their work might be found. It also gives information as to where exhibits can be obtained.

Special exhibits of the work done by students in the art classes of the high school and also work done in relation to the units of work have been placed for public display in schools, department stores, libraries, and club rooms. Friezes made by the students of the Alessandro Junior High School of San Bernardino city were sent to the office of the supervisor of the project at Washington, D. C., and to the demonstration center at the University of Pennsylvania

Music. A committee of San Bernardino County music people representing elementary, junior and senior high school, and college levels accepted the responsibility of a dual assignment in connection with the project on inter-American education: first, to develop background and a sympathetic understanding of Latin American people through an appreciation of their music, and, second, to assemble a bibliography of Latin American music materials.

All the communities represented by the committee members were stimulated to sing, play, dance, and listen to music of the other Americas through pageants, fiestas, and concerts. Instruments for interpreting this music were made or procured by various schools and were used to accompany the native songs and dances.

In conjunction with the Adult Education Program of the San Bernardino Valley Union Junior College, the committee provided lectures on Latin American music which were illustrated by authentic piano compositions. Typical music of Central and South America was used as well as music of the United States which shows strong Latin American influence.

The bibliography provides lists of source books, collections of folk and art songs, annotated lists of piano music, music for orchestra and band, recordings, and pictures of primitive and modern musical instruments of Latin America.

San Bernardino city schools. The entire city system including 18 elementary schools, 4 junior high schools, and the senior high school participated in the program of inter-American education. The director of elementary education served as executive chairman and directed the activities in the city schools.

Curriculum changes. In the elementary schools, existing units of work were enriched and new emphasis was placed on our South American neighbors. Four new units were developed on a fourth-grade level: Down Argentina Way, Jungle Life, Clipper Trip to Banana Land, and Along the Inca Highway. Five new units were developed on a sixth-grade level: Resources and Trade of the Americas, Trade in the Pacific, Strategic Materials for Defense, How the People of South America Solve Their Problem of Living, Comparative Study of the Americas in History and Culture.

Curriculum changes in the junior high school included new units in the social studies on the Cultures of the Americas and Money of the Americas. Homemaking courses were enriched to include food, textiles, and medicinal plants from South America.

Science classes exhibited the flowers and shrubs native to South America.

Redlands city schools. All the teachers in the Redlands system have been cognizant of the problem of inter-American education for a number of years, due to the large number of Mexican children enrolled in the schools.

Curriculum changes in the elementary schools included a life study of Mexican Peoples and the Incas, on the third-grade level; and three new units on the sixth-grade level: Rubber Gatherers, Cacao Workers, and Life on a Cacao Plantation. All the curriculum units taught in the elementary schools were extended to include a study of South America.

Curriculum changes in the junior high school included changes in the social-living units, in art, in business practice, science, and general language. A new course entitled Spanish-English was added to the curriculum to meet the needs of the Mexican students

Curriculum changes in the senior high school included changes in history units, Spanish, literature, home economics, art, music, and physical education.

Ontario city schools. The program in the Ontario schools consists mainly of in-service training of teachers and the utilization of community resources in supplementing the present curriculum. No new units were developed.

University of Redlands The program in the University of Redlands was directed by the Spanish department and the president of the University.

Curriculum changes include two new courses, The Caribbean People; Their Origins, Business, and Defense, and Introduction to South America Many of the Redlands faculty have served as consultants for teachers in this area.

County secondary schools The survey made of the rural high schools to ascertain what was being done to further Latin American relations indicated that considerable progress had been made in the

Spanish classes and in the Mexican, Pan American, and Spanish clubs.

Curriculum changes included the implementation of existing courses of study in social science, English, history, music, art, and physical education to include South American content. Two new courses were introduced this year. Pan American Relations on the ninth- and tenth grade levels, and History of Latin America on the twelfth-grade level.

Club activities have increased in all the rural high schools of the county. Mexican children have always constituted the minority group in the student body. The program of inter American understanding has given these children status that they have never previously enjoyed. Leadership has developed and participation in student-body activities has noticeably increased. In several schools, Mexican students have been elected to offices and have been able to assume responsibilities that rightfully belong to all capable students in a democratic organization.

A group of Spanish teachers met several times during the semester and planned a cooperative unit in Spanish that would also include the culture of the people. This unit is included in this report.

The teachers and administrators in the rural high schools all felt that this project in inter-American relations did much to improve the total high-school program as subject-matter fields were broken down and all teachers worked toward a common purpose

County elementary schools. The program in the rural schools was directed by the staff of supervisors in the county office of education. All rural schools participated. Curriculum changes included the extending of existing units of work to include South American content. Two new units were developed, one on the Incas and the other on Trade and Commerce to South America. Next year it is planned to use the two units developed in other centers, Rubber Gatherers, and Life in the Andes.

In-service training of teachers. All the teachers in this area had an

opportunity to visit classrooms where superior teachers were guiding children in units which had been implemented to include South American content or which were life studies of such peoples as the Incas, Mayas, rubber gatherers, or gauchos.

The lecture series offered by the junior college and the University of Redlands helped teachers considerably in getting authentic background information. An extension course is planned for the fall semester to be given by the Extension Department of the University of California at Los Angeles Individual members of the high-school faculty proved very helpful in some of the remote areas where it was impossible for teachers to attend lectures. The County Library, the city libraries of San Bernardino, Redlands, and Ontario, as well as the libraries of the institutions of higher learning, were most coöperative in making materials available for teachers. The museums cooperated by arranging exhibits and by providing guides for lecture tours. The Visual Aid Department of the office of the County Superintendent of Schools arranged the exhibit which was lent by the United States Office of Education. All the teachers in this area, as well as lay groups, viewed the exhibit and practically every individual school provided a special room where books, maps, slides, films, and realia could be exhibited The list of available materials sent by the United States Office of Education was most helpful. The various communities in this area had many individuals and groups who donated their time and energy in making available firsthand information about South America or some prized possessions which they had collected in their travels.

Forward look. At the close of the school year a questionnaire was sent to all the teachers to determine their reactions to these two questions: What do you think you could do another year to promote inter-American understanding and good will beyond what you have done this year? What helps do you think would be most valuable in promoting the program another year?

The response was very easily tabulated as there was almost uni-

versal agreement that considerably more needed to be done and with the background that was provided this year the program could go forward much more effectively. Teacher groups are attempting to evaluate the work done this year and to set up standards for the coming year. All the teachers felt they needed more materials as books, *realia*, recordings for folk dances and for rhythms, and visual-aid materials. They also wanted more records of work done by teachers in other parts of the country. We all felt that this project has been a worth-while undertaking and has done much to further the total educational program of this area

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Continental teamwork in the field of jurisprudence has admittedly lagged behind inter-American cooperation in other fields Aware of this, the Pan American Union recently urged action in that direction by the United States group it considered best equipped and qualified to undertake it—the American Bar Association.

At a meeting held in Detroit in late August the Association voted that State and local bar organizations throughout the United States be urged to appoint special committees to study the important similarities and differences between the juridical systems and the jurisprudence of the Latin American countries and those of the United States. Gradual unification and simplification of civil and commercial law among all the American republics is the goal. The study is to be made in cooperation with the Inter-American Bar Association and the Pan American Union

EDUCATIONAL IMPLEMENTATION OF THE GOOD NEIGHBOR POLICY

JOSHUA HOCHSTEIN

Formerly Chairman, Committee on Inter-American Relations, Department of Secondary Teachers, National Education Association

What the public schools of the Nation are doing to implement the Good Neighbor Policy has been told in a bulletin published last year by the United States Office of Education under the title *Inter-American Friendship Through the Schools*. It is available free of charge to all interested in this report. Based on a questionnaire survey in which a large number of schools—elementary, junior and senior high schools—furnished the information, this bulletin affords the reader a view of a country-wide effort to translate an official formula of executive policy into a pattern of popular conduct and attitude in inter-American relations.

The importance of this educational effort cannot be overestimated. In the seasoned judgment of the Department of State, as expressed in its report to the Appropriations Committee of the House of Representatives at the present session of the Congress, far more significant in the long run for hemisphere solidarity than the economic and military accords, arranged during the emergency, is the growth of the movement for closer cultural relations. This inevitably involves education, as was pointed out in July 1939 by Dr. Ben M Cherrington, then Chief of the State Department's Division of Cultural Relations, in his address to the N.E.A. convention at San Francisco He defined cultural relations as a people's movement, and assigned to the schools a leading role in it

The State Department's thought on this subject can be clearly seen also in the following fact In October 1936, the writer was requested by the Department to submit a detailed report on the Pan American club movement in the secondary schools for the use of the United States delegation to the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace at Buenos Aires in December of that year It was

at that conference that the treaty on cultural relations was adopted.

In other words, a program of inter American education in our public schools is envisaged by the National Government on the high plane of an instrumentality in the realization of national policy in hemisphere relations. Furthermore, if the aim of fashioning public education into such an instrumentality is achieved, the goal of the program will also have been reached. The objective of the inter-American education program is to create that basis for inter-American confidence, the *sine qua non* of genuine and enduring inter-American collaboration, for which very many thoughtful and sincere Latin Americans are still waiting. Knowing the power of our public schools in shaping our people's ideology and sentiment, Latin Americans will definitely be reassured as to the sincerity and reliability of our Pan American protestations during this world crisis only if they see public education in this country enlisted in and dedicated to the cause of hemisphere solidarity. This slogan must become a prime educational objective.

The past summer gave me an opportunity to observe many inter-American educational programs taking shape and form. It was my privilege to visit a number of curriculum workshops and attend State meetings of county superintendents of schools as a consultant in inter-American affairs on behalf of the United States Office of Education. These workshops literally dotted the country. It was a rare university campus that did not have one. In many of them, there were special groups or divisions concerned with Latin American studies. My travels took me to the South, Middle West, and Pennsylvania and New York States.

One of the most reassuring signs was the evident interest among supervisors of rural schools in the inter-American program. The official agenda of the county superintendents' conferences provided for consideration of this question. The United States Office of Education had been asked to send a consultant in this field. It was the

writer's happy experience to find a positive interest and reaction, for instance, at the Kansas State Conference in Topeka. Furthermore, at an interview with Governor Ratner of Kansas, I learned that back in 1939 he was the first State Executive to establish a Governor's Commission on Education and Defense, now known as the Governor's Commission on Education and the War According to the Kansas State Teachers' Association, this Commission was still the only one of its kind in the whole country last July.

Enjoying the prestige of the State Executive's endorsement and support, the Commission has been publishing a series of very valuable pamphlets to orient the thinking of teachers and other citizens of the State along lines of the broad implications of the war effort. The first pamphlet to be issued this fall will deal with inter-American relations. It was planned to include in it a statement by the Governor, a declaration of the country's national objective in its relationships with the other American republics, a study guide for teachers, and a pertinent bibliography.

County superintendents evinced a desire to take advantage of the Latin American exhibits offered by the United States Office of Education, wanted them for longer periods than scheduled, were eager for full information on new books for juvenile readers, and disclosed their intention to devote some time at their county institutes (teacher meetings) to the study and discussion of the program and its application in their schools

The importance of having the inter-American program reach down to the grass roots need not be stressed It is sufficient to cite the following: At the Kansas meeting I heard from one county superintendent that some students in one of his schools, who had been working on a Latin American trade project, had come to the conclusion that opening this market to Argentine beef might have beneficial effects through the scheme of triangular trade relations, by compensating for some possible loss to the domestic meat business with greater opportunities for sales in manufactures Their

reasoning was based on the fact that increased beef exports would mean a higher standard of living in Argentina for more of its people. A wider market of consumers of our manufactured products in that southern republic would mean additional employment in this country's industries, and eventually more meat consumption here. The county concerned is near the beef belt.

To the curriculum workshops teachers came to earn credit toward graduate degrees or for the purpose of State certification. To Cornell, for instance, in whose workshop almost thirty different cities and about as many different States were represented, many had come for the purpose of working out a definite course of study to take back to their schools. They had been requested to undertake the project by their superintendent or principal. In a number of cases, they were to teach a new course in Latin American history, inter-American relations, or a revised course in other subjects which were expected to contribute to an understanding of Latin America. There were several teachers who were particularly interested in the extracurricular aspect -Pan American club activities. In addition, there were principals and other supervisors who were planning to introduce such materials into the course of study in their schools.

There were two tendencies represented among the curriculum planners. One thought of the inter-American program as belonging almost exclusively in the social-studies field Of course, the music and girls' health-education departments could cooperate in a Pan American assembly program, providing song and dance numbers; the art department could help with the stage sets However, these departments were seen as concerned with the play level of the program. Theirs was the exotic touch—a little tropical rhythm, a dash of colorful costumes, a suggestive backdrop for the swaying pseudo-gauchos, etc. The serious business of interpreting Latin America was the function of the social studies. Not only was no thought turned in the direction of English as a medium for the understand-

ing of the rest of America; even Spanish came in for only passing consideration.

Here I must interpolate a remark or two to the effect that perhaps the teachers of Spanish themselves may be accountable for this attitude toward them. (I am saying this as one myself.) In the civilization instruction, accompanying the language work, there is altogether too much emphasis on the bizarre, the quaint, the exotic, the archaeologic, the museum content. There is too much romanticism; too little of the reality of the life of the other Americas. Furthermore, though we are teaching Spanish supposedly for the sake of understanding Hispanic America, there is still a most reverent insistence on the Castilian pronunciation. Teachers of Spanish do not seem to realize that if there were no Spanish America today, the Spanish language would fare no better in our schools under an exclusive Franco label than does French since the tragedy of Vichy. Neither is it understood that with the increase of our tourism to Hispanic America (before and after the war interruption) every North American lisping *a la castellana* belies this overwhelming interest we claim in our Good Neighbors and their culture.

Let us return to the workshops Among the social-studies people, there was some division of opinion as to the best procedure to adopt. Some favored a separate course in Latin American history—for one or two semesters. Both types were reported from various schools. Others preferred a history of the Americas course, covering the whole hemisphere and taking the place of the present American history course, which is really a history of the United States

The case for the course in hemisphere history was based on the argument that it would tend to deemphasize chauvinist nationalism and inculcate a feeling for and an understanding of the idea of international interdependence.

Pursuing the line of reasoning of those who advocated a social-studies hegemony over the inter-American program, special courses

were suggested in inter American relations, inter American trade, Latin American economic geography, etc. The course planners began to worry about where to put in units on the culture of Latin America, and how much time to allow for a study of Latin America's achievements in the arts, literature, and music.

The other point of view held that not only was it impossible and even pointless to attempt to have the whole job done by the social studies, but that the inter American objective was an aim to which the curriculum as a whole should contribute. It might be said that the Good Neighbor Policy proposes a hemisphere citizenship. Therefore, the educative process as a whole is charged with the responsibility of forming the new hemisphere citizen. That has been the point of view with reference to citizenship in our Federal Union. We should now amplify it to apply to citizenship in the Union of American Republics.

The school program based on this principle which I know best is that of Evander Childs High School, Bronx, New York. In 1939, the principal, Dr. Hymen Alpern, established the Evander Council on Pan American Activities to plan and guide such a program. This body has faculty representatives of the various departments of instruction. The principal is an ex-officio member. The faculty adviser of the Pan American Club is also a member of the Council. Until restrictions were invoked on the use of mimeograph paper under the defense economy, the Council issued a monthly bulletin, in which it published news of its activities, reports of inter-American educational developments elsewhere, brief articles by leaders in the movement, and current bibliography and lists of new materials and sources.

Under Dr. Alpern's leadership a school-wide experiment with inter-American units or topics in all subject fields was launched. Teachers prepared lessons with an inter-American motivation or background to be given in the regular course of events. However,

one special week was set aside for that experiment. It was the week of the fiftieth anniversary of the Pan American Union, in April 1940. All such lessons and other projects were submitted to the departmental chairmen, who observed some of them in classes. A representative selection, recommended by the chairmen, was published later in the year in a 45-page pamphlet, *Education for Inter-American Friendship*.[1]

In this program an attempt was made to find out how an awareness of Latin America and of the interdependence of all the American nations could be conveyed to students through the medium of normal instruction in all subject fields This does not mean that the aim was to eliminate all other areas of the world from the background On the contrary, the purpose was to enrich the student's experience by helping him discover the neglected area of Latin America, not through a specially devised course, but through the established courses he had been following for some time. Whereas, it has been possible for a student to complete four years of high school and even advance to the Ph D. degree in social studies without ever becoming conscious of the existence of Latin America, much less knowing it, Evander's idea is to widen the educational horizon of its curriculum.

Thus, not only Spanish and the social studies, but also English, home economics, the natural and physical sciences, health education, shopwork, music, and art, accounting and office practice, stenography and typewriting, and even mathematics become the channels of understanding Latin America and its peoples. In English classes attention was turned to biographies of Latin Americans, travel tales below the Rio Grande, and Latin American fiction in English translation. Students of home economics and shopwork learned about the origin of materials—foodstuffs and woods—they employed in making the products they enjoyed so much Latin America's flora and fauna and other natural resources received con-

[1] For the full story of this experiment, *see High Points* for September 1940

sideration in biology, chemistry, and physics. The games and dance forms of Latin America provided lessons in health education classes. Population statistics, distances and areas, production and trade figures, and even the geometric designs of the national flags were the materials used in problems in algebra, geometry, business arithmetic, accounting, and tabulation in typewriting.

These are but a few illustrations of the direction this experimental program took. The results warranted further efforts and, when the school was invited by the United States Office of Education to serve as one of its Inter-American Demonstration Centers, official authorization was received from the Board of Education and the Board of Superintendents to undertake a long-range experiment of this nature in all non-Regents grades of all subjects. This, of course, means a program of curriculum revision; and this is now in progress at the Evander Childs High School.

Evander's inter-American program extends beyond this curriculum experiment. Intraschool activity is not regarded as sufficient to build inter-American educational or cultural relations. There must be an interchange with other teaching and cultural institutions and organizations in this country and in Latin America. There are two reasons for this view. In the first place, there is much to be learned from this interchange. Second, not only must other North American schools be encouraged in the same direction, but Latin America must know of this effort, in which it sees the much desired and long awaited evidence of the fact that the people are ready or being prepared to support the continuation of President Roosevelt's Good Neighbor Policy.

To carry out this phase of its program, Evander has developed a network of relationships in this country and in Latin America. Specifically this means an interchange of information on procedures; of materials—school publications and student work; of correspondence between students and teachers; and the sending of newsletters to Latin American publications. National flags have been ex-

changed with Latin American schools; Latin American newspapers, literary magazines, educational publications, and juvenile magazines are being received in a steady stream. Many Latin American writers convey their greetings to the school and their approval of the approach by sending autographed copies of their books. Thus the school is participating in inter-American cultural relations in a very direct manner and also helping to create that feeling of hemisphere solidarity.[a]

Two very significant areas within the inter-American program still await serious attention and positive action on the part of the public schools. Unless the elementary and secondary schools enter them actively and undertake the task with genuine devotion, there is hardly any hope for the solution of these two problems, which really are one. Beyond high-school age, people are too set in their ways to change.

I am referring to the relations within our own communities to the Negroes and the Latin Americans. Among the latter, there are many who, born in this country, are technically Americans in our sense of the term. Factually, they are rarely so regarded.

The interest of Latin America in the racial problem in the United States is immense, even if not well known to most of us. To many millions in Latin America it is the touchstone by which to test the sincerity of our proclaimed friendship for distant people who are very similar to the underprivileged minority in this land.

The color question applies also to many here of Latin American origin. But though in many instances Mexicans and others may not be confused with Negroes, there is a sort of racial problem there too. Both are across-the-tracks groups The Puerto Ricans in New York City, the Mexicans in Texas, the Cubans on the Florida coasts

[a] The detailed story of these relationships appeared in *High Points* for February 1942, and in *Secondary Education* for February–March 1942 "Evander Childs High School as an Inter-American Center"

are some of the examples of the opportunities our public schools have for effective inter-American education right here and now.

A useful compilation of recent inter American political, economic, and juridical developments has been prepared by the Pan American Union This sixty-page mimeographed work is one of four programs designed for women's clubs, educational institutions, and other study groups as well as interested individuals The others are *The Good Neighbor Tour, Evolution of the Pan American Movement,* and *Literature-Art-Music. The Americas and the War* may be obtained from the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C., for twenty-five cents

For the tenth in its series "Education and National Defense" Rachel Davis-DuBois, director of the Intercultural Education Workshop, has prepared for the United States Office of Education a manual for teachers entitled *National Unity through Intercultural Education* It contains practical suggestions and reports of activity units from teachers in different parts of the country ranging from the primary, intermediate, secondary, and adult levels and making use of various approaches Examples are drawn from as many minority groups as possible, including the Mexicans, Spanish-American, and the Orientals of the West and Southwest, as well as of the Negroes, the Jews, and the myriad European elements of the industrial cities of the East There is a small but well selected bibliography for teachers and a list of helpful organizations. For information as to date of publication, write to United States Office of Education or Intercultural Education Workshop, 204 East 18th Street, New York, N Y

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL *may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send in at once to the editor of this department titles, and where possible descriptions, of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in fields of interest kindred to educational sociology.*

TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL INSTITUTE OF THE SOCIETY FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH

The twenty-first annual Institute of the Society for Social Research was held on August 14 and 15 on the University of Chicago campus. The theme of the Institute was "The Impact of War on Modern Society."

At the business meeting on August 15, the following officers were elected for the coming year:

President: William F. Ogburn, Chairman, Department of Sociology, University of Chicago
Vice-President: Herbert J. Abraham, Department of Education, University of Chicago
Executive Secretary: Jack Seeley
Secretary-Treasurer: Ann Hartzler
Editor: Gerald Breese
Assistant Editor: Annabelle Bender
Faculty Advisers: (for a two year term, 1942–1944) Ernest W. Burgess, Department of Sociology, University of Chicago
(completing a two-year term, 1941–1943) Everett C. Hughes, Department of Sociology, University of Chicago

Thirteen sessions were held, each devoted to a single aspect of war and society. The session on "Personal Adjustment and the War" was under the chairmanship of Ernest W. Burgess. At this session John F. Cuber of the Department of Sociology of Kent State University presented case data dealing with the adjustment of college men to army life; Evelyn Millis Duvall, executive director of the Association for Family Living, analyzed case materials about the young people who are currently marrying; A. J. Jaffe of the Research Division of the Office of the Chief of Spe-

cial Services, War Department, spoke of the problems encountered by the Army in dealing with dependency, and Ralph W. Ogan, associate director of the Cooperative Study in Education, presented the findings of a study concerned with the problems which seem most acute to college students in wartime.

Two sessions were devoted to "The Community and the War." The first, under the chairmanship of Allison Davis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, included two papers analyzing the effects of Army camp construction on the small towns near which they were located; the first, dealing with a Texas community, by Harry F. Moore of the Department of Sociology, University of Texas, and the second a study of Neosho, Missouri, by Lucille Kohler, a graduate student at the University of Missouri. Mr. Moore's paper was read for him by H. Warren Dunham of Wayne University, and Miss Kohler's was read by Noel P. Gist of the University of Missouri. The final paper in this section was an account of the effect of the war on the social agencies of Louisville, presented by Robert I. Kutak, chairman of the Department of Sociology at the University of Louisville.

The second section on "The Community and the War," presided over by E. T. Hiller, Department of Sociology, University of Illinois, presented reports on rural communities and the war by Roy F. Wakeley, Iowa State College, on Iowa and Merton Oyler, University of Kentucky, on Kentucky. A. B. Hollingshead, Department of Sociology, Indiana University, discussed the effect of the rationing system on morale in a Middle Western county, from his vantage point as a participant observer.

Herman Finer, visiting professor at the University of Chicago from the University of London, presided over a session on "National Attitudes and the War." Edward H. Buehrig of the Department of Government, Indiana University, discussed the relation between public opinion and foreign policy in America; Frank L. Klingberg of the James Millikin University reported a psychometric analysis of the attitudes of nations toward one another; and Reinhard Bendix, a graduate student at the University of Chicago, reported on the nature and extent of resistance to Fascism in Germany.

With Clyde W. Hart of the University of Indiana in the chair during the session on "Public Opinion and the War," Elmo C. Wilson of the Office of Facts and Figures reported on the current status of research in public opinion and morale in wartime; Arthur W. Kornhauser of the

University of Chicago presented the findings of a current study of attitudes toward the war in Chicago; and Paul R. Farnsworth of Stanford University pointed out some modifications that had to be made in employing war attitude tests devised in peacetime in a war situation.

In a general session devoted to "Wartime Changes in Social Stratification," with Herbert Blumer, Department of Sociology, University of Chicago, presiding, Charles S. Johnson of Fisk University contributed a thoroughgoing analysis of the impact of war on Negro-white relations, and Ralph Linton, of Columbia University, spoke of the changes likely to occur in the relationships of "primitive" and "civilized" peoples as a result of the war.

The session on "Minority Groups and the War" was presided over by Hylan Lewis of Talladega College Reports on the status of ethnics with regard to their attitudes, feelings, and behavior concerning the war were presented by Horace M Marston, executive director, Joint Public Relations Committee of Pittsburgh, for Pittsburgh ethnic groups; Paul Honigsheim, Michigan State College, for Michigan ethnics; and Samuel M. Strong, Department of Sociology, University of Minnesota, for ethnic groups in the Twin Cities In a final paper in this session, Paul Campisi, a graduate student in the Department of Sociology, University of Chicago, analyzed the conflicts in attitudes toward the war existing among Italians.

T V. Smith, Department of Philosophy, University of Chicago, was chairman of the session on "Ideologies and the War." Earl S. Johnson of the University of Chicago reported the findings of a study, tending to show the existence of much ideological confusion among college students just prior to the war. A paper by Lewis C Copeland of Fisk University, read for him by Charles S Johnson, analyzed racial ideologies in wartime; a theme which was carried further in a paper by Ralph N. Davis, of Tuskegee Institute, dealing with the attitudes of Negro newspapers toward the war. In a final paper, Eric Franzen of Miami University analyzed the military ideology

The session on "Economic Processes and the War" was presided over by Frank Knight of the University of Chicago. John K. Langum, manager of the Research and Statistics Department of the Federal Reserve Bank of Chicago, pointed out the social implications of wartime inflation; Elmer W. Henderson of the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice reported on the present status of discrimination against

Negroes in war industries, and Rex M. Johnson of Dillard University described and analyzed the economic patterns of a total war.

William F. Ogburn of the University of Chicago was chairman of a session dealing with "Demographic Trends and the War." Philip M. Hauser, Assistant Director of the Bureau of the Census, discussed the effects of war on population and vital phenomena. Ernest Manheim of the University of Kansas City, analyzed defense migrations in the Kansas City area; and Dale M. Spencer, director of Survey Research Associates, reported the changes in occupational trends due to the war.

A session on "Communications and the War" was presided over by Walter Johnson of the Department of History, University of Chicago. At this session, war and the motion picture were discussed by Donald Slesinger, director of the American Film Center, and war and the press, in a joint paper by Ithiel D. Pool and N. C. Leites, both of the University of Chicago. In the final paper in this session, Horace R. Cayton, director of the Good Shepherd Community Center, discussed the kinds of propaganda and their effectiveness in reaching a minority group.

Samuel C. Kincheloe of the University of Chicago presided over the session on "Social Organization and the War." Florian F. Znaniecki of the Department of Sociology of the University of Illinois analyzed the changes taking place in individuals' life organization and social roles as a result of the war; Harvey J. Locke of the Department of Sociology of Indiana University reported on family behavior in wartime; and Everett C. Hughes of the Department of Sociology of the University of Chicago spoke of the changes in the structure of French-English relationships in Canada in war.

The final session of the Institute was the annual dinner. Ellsworth Faris presided and Herbert Blumer was toastmaster. The speaker of the evening was E. B. Reuter of the University of Indiana who presented an analysis of the state of social research and the role of the social scientist in wartime.

BOOK REVIEWS

Argentina, The Life Story of a Nation, by JOHN W. WHITE. New York: Viking Press, 1942, 366 pages.

Most of the recent output of books on Latin America by journalists have been poor jobs, lacking in scholarship and fundamental understanding. No such criticism can be leveled against this engrossing volume of Mr. White's who has lived for twenty-five years in Latin America, ten of which found him employed as chief correspondent on that continent for *The New York Times*.

His book introduces us in brief outline to the political, social, and economic history of Argentina, from the earliest days of Spanish colonization to the present. The mirror which he holds up to us for close inspection reveals the complex personality in all of its many facets of that fascinating country, not on good terms with the United States and yet whose career has often paralleled our own In discussing in detail some of the problems involved in our relationship with the Argentineans the author stresses their point of view so that we may learn why the Argentineans sometimes view the same problems from other and often opposite angles If much of the unfriendliness the Argentineans harbor toward us arises from their resentment at our lack of knowledge about them, then Mr White has done Argentina a great service, for his book should certainly awaken a livelier and enlightened American interest in that Republic and its people.

The Negro in the Caribbean, by ERIC WILLIAMS. Bronze Booklet Series, edited by Alain Locke. Washington, D C.: Associates in Negro Folk Education, 1942, 119 pages.

The Caribbean is, today, one of the crucial foci of national, hemispheric, and international politics No one can deny, therefore, that the issues raised in this competent study of Professor Williams's presents a challenge to us, which in the words of the editor "rightly solved, will lead to the constructive enlargement of Western Democracy."

After a brief description of the Caribbean islands and their slavery background, the author examines their economic structure, the condition of the Negro wage earner, the land problem and the status of the Negro peasant, the middle class and the racial problem, native education, and political problems He concludes with a realistic analysis of the future of the Caribbean.

Professor Williams exposes the dangers inherent in the economic and political exploitation of the black masses by both the white and near-white aristocrats and the mulatto middle class. The Negroes, throughout the entire Caribbean area, being at the bottom of the economic scale, are the worst victims of malaria, hookworm, and tuberculosis, an inadequate school system, and frightful slums.

The author advocates economic and political equality for the Negroes, a political federation of the islands on a basis of nationality, and an economic federation of all, supported by purchases in the Western Hemisphere of surpluses that formerly went to Europe.

The Latin American Republics; A History, by DANA GARDNER MUNRO. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1942, 650 pages.

Professor Munro has undertaken to emphasize the political development of the twenty different nations in South and Middle America in his attempt to give the student and general reader an understanding of the main outlines of Latin American history. He feels that this approach is especially important at the present time and he gives his reasons in his foreword.

His presentation chapter by chapter does not differ much from other texts on Latin America, although his style is eminently readable. After his historical discussion of each country, Professor Munro closes with an examination of the relations of Latin America and the United States, and Pan Americanism and the present war.

Eleven maps and a good supplementary reading list are enclosed for the general reader and the student who is not a specialist.

Brazil Under Vargas, by KARL LOEWENSTEIN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942, 381 pages.

This panoramic survey of the outstanding and most successful example of authoritarian government in the New World gathered from varied objective and subjective sources is not just another political travelogue made up of sweeping generalities and judgments determined by personal impressions rather than by accurate information. It is rather an authoritative study by a political scientist with wide experience of our most important ally in the Western Hemisphere, a country with fifty million people and larger than the United States.

After a brief review of the background of present-day Brazil, the author examines the constitution of that *Estado Novo*, its system of government, and courts, the press and censorship, the universities, arts and letters, and the people. He concludes that the Vargas regime is neither democratic nor a "disciplined" democracy. Neither is it totalitarian or fascist. Technically, Brazil is a full-fledged authoritarian dictatorship, "for which French constitutional theory has coined the apt term of *régime personnel*." In several chapters on foreign stock he discusses the German, Japanese, and Italian minorities, and how the government copes with them. His portrait of Getulio Vargas, the leader, and his analysis of his regime are deeply penetrating and realistic and should contribute to a better understanding on our part of the key state of South America.

The Inter-American System: A Canadian View, by JOHN P. HUMPHREY. Toronto: The Macmillan Company of Canada, Ltd., 1942, 329 pages.

This is not just another book on Latin America, but it is rather a study from a Canadian point of view of the complex pattern of inter-American institutions and treaties (which the author refers to as the inter-American system) and its relation to Canada. Professor Humphrey opens his book with a discussion of the Canadian attitude toward Latin America and Pan-Americanism which until very recently had been one of indifference. He next traces the history of the Pan-American Conferences from the Congress in Panama in 1826 to the Second Consultative Meeting of American Foreign Ministers in 1940 when the Good Neighbor Policy was in full swing. He devotes a full chapter to the institutional bases of Pan-Americanism in which he describes the most important of the various Pan American organizations including the Pan American Union. In his chapter on Pan America and the world order, Professor Humphrey discusses the role which the inter-American system has played and may in the future play in relation to other attempts to organize international relations. In his final chapter he weighs the arguments for and against Canadian participation and reaches the conclusion that Canada should join the system, and join as soon as the necessary arrangements can be made. In his appendices the author lists the special Pan American conferences that have been held up to September 1940, as well as the names of 51 inter-American organizations.

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT WAR FILMS AND FILMS ON LATIN AMERICA

New York University Film Library has been named by the Office of War Information as a depository for United States Government war films and films on Latin America released through the Office of Inter-American Affairs.

The films coming from the Office of Inter American Affairs are designed to give the people of the United States a better understanding of their little-known fellow Americans to the south

Forty films are already available in these series and three to five additional titles are planned for release each month. These films are available to educational groups at the rate of 50c for each subject and 25c for each additional film of the same series booked and sent at the same time -transportation both ways to be paid by the user.

OFFICE OF INTER-AMERICAN AFFAIRS SERIES

A Line From Yucatan (10 min.)
Americans All (20 min.)
Argentine Soil (20 min.)
Brazil (10 min.)
Brazil Gets The News (10 min.)
Buenos Aires And Montevideo (10 min.)
Colombia (10 min.)
Colombia, Crossroads of the Americas (25 min.)
Fiesta Of The Hills (10 min.)
Fire And Water (10 min.)
High Spots Of A High Country (20 min.)
Jungle Quest For The Great Stone Heads (30 min.)
Mexico Builds A Democracy (20 min.)
Orchids (10 min.)
Our Neighbors Down The Road (30 min.)
Patagonian Playground (10 min.)
Sky Dancers of Papantla (10 min.)
Sundays In The Valley Of Mexico (10 min.)
The Bounteous Earth (10 min.)
The Day Is New (10 min.)
The Hill Towns Of Guatemala (10 min.)
Treasure Trove Of Jade (30 min.)
Venezuela (10 min.)
Wooden Faces Of Totonicapan (10 min.)

Reservations should be made now (all films are 16 mm. sound): New York University Film Library, 71 Washington Square South, New York, N.Y.

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EDITORIAL

In America we have developed the most highly child-centered culture (save for a few preliterate cultures) in the history of the world. It is natural, as a consequence, that we should express much anxiety over the possible impact of war upon our children—from children of nursery age to our eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds.

This anxiety is legitimate. We are not merely fighting a war—we are fighting a war to preserve a way of life. What happens to our children during this war will determine their capacity to reaffirm and carry on the way of life for which we are fighting.

At the same time, it is clearly written for all of us to read that our enemies are determined not merely to defeat us in a military sense, but to exterminate us as a people. We must win this war if our children are to have the opportunity to perpetuate our way of life.

It follows that old problems must be approached from unaccustomed values, the most basic of which are the military necessities which are necessary to victory. The question becomes not, "Will our children be harmed by the ordeal we must endure?" This is total war, and there is no escape for our children. The question becomes, rather, "How, in doing the things we must do to win this war, can we safeguard our children against unnecessary hurt, physical and psychic?"

Margaret Mead presents a point of view that deserves thoughtful

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consideration in seeking an answer to this question. Anna Wolf tells what home and community may contribute to answering it. Dr. Despert gives sound advice to the school, on the basis of firsthand observation of children's psychological reactions to the war. Ethel Percy Andrus's article on the controversial High School Victory Corps should be read in relation to Dr. Despert's recommendations.

HARVEY ZORBAUGH

NEW INFORMATION ON MILITARY OCCUPATIONS

The *Occupational Index*, established in 1936 under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, has just announced that in the future it will review, annotate, index, and evaluate all new publications on military occupations, including all books and pamphlets which describe the attractions and the disadvantages, the opportunities and requirements of all branches of the Army, Navy, Marines, Coast Guard, Air Corps, WAACS, WAVES, and WOWS, and the Service Projects for Conscientious Objectors. New subscribers will receive a recommended list of publications already available. The *Occupational Index* is published quarterly at New York University, the annual subscription price is five dollars.

Professor Robert Hoppock, in announcing the new service, said that vocational guidance for boys is becoming almost exclusively guidance for military service and that it promises to remain so for the duration. He predicted that school and college counselors would soon find their college catalogues and books on civilian occupations being pushed off the shelves by books and pamphlets on the new military careers. The new service, he said, is designed to help schools and libraries to find the best sources of information on any branches of the service in which their students may be interested.

WAR NEED NOT MAR OUR CHILDREN*

MARGARET MEAD

Can we protect our children in wartime? In the bottom of their hearts most Americans believe that we cannot, that we are condemned to seeing a whole generation of little children marred by war. This basic belief shows through the barrage of nervous, excitable questions, of rumors and cross rumors, about evacuation and air-raid shelters, about nutrition plans, identification tags, and discussion of what to tell the children about the war.

From the mother of young children to the welfare worker, the nurse, the teacher come the anxious, recurrent, worried questions, sometimes cast in personal terms, sometimes including all the children of America within their scope. What is going to happen to education? Will all the school routines be interrupted? Is there going to be a dreadful increase in juvenile delinquency? Have we the available child psychologists to deal with the children who are war shocked?

On the surface, these all appear merely reasonable questions, which should be answered quietly, informatively, with facts about how evacuation is finally working out in England, with authoritative statements from the best child psychiatrists about how slightly children have actually suffered from the Blitz itself, and how much more they suffered from evacuation away from parents, friends, and teachers. Child-guidance experts can be brought in to state clearly, definitely, that if the adults are calm, unhysterical, serene, the children will not show any serious signs of shock. The best experience in England, backed up by two years of careful work, shows these signs to be true. If we tell inquiring and anxious mothers these things, will they not be reassured?

* The point of view Margaret Mead presents here first appeared in *The New York Times Magazine* shortly after Pearl Harbor. Dr Mead's viewpoint is so basic to our thinking about our children in relation to the war that THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY requested the permission of *The New York Times* to include it in this issue.

Similarly, with the welfare workers. They recognize the immense unfilled needs in this country for better health and welfare work. Is not their anxiety merely a reasonable and responsible insistence on the things to be done? And the teachers, worrying about the interruptions of education, the problems of possible school evacuation? Well, they were problems in England. Education was terribly interrupted. In 1941 the Minister of Education, broadcasting, announced that of 5,000,000 elementary school children 700,000 were receiving only part-time instruction and 800,000 were "unaccounted for." If this happened in England, is it not reasonable for teachers to be worried about what is to happen here?

But when we analyze all these fears and worries into those which appear reasonable and those which appear to be due to ignorance, and carefully remove the ignorance, explain that evacuation is working very well in England, advance programs for welfare action in this country, do we find that the persistent fear disappears? No, instead we find that it continues, and those who have tried to explain it have been driven to various sorts of indictment of Americans, mothers and teachers and welfare workers, as hysterical and unable to take it. They say that this recurrent fear of "what the war is going to do to our children" is just a projection of our own instability. And then those people who enjoy spreading accounts of how low morale is tell about a welfare council meeting entirely devoted to identification tags and sand boxes for putting out bombs.

But an anthropologist who has watched attitudes of adults toward children in many different societies will give a different answer. Admitting that wartime brings dislocation and confusion, admitting that people are badly misinformed about conditions in England and know only of the failures and very little of the successes, and do not realize that evacuation of children through careful stages of day nurseries and then to country school camps is now a very going concern, the anthropologist recognizes that there is more behind this fear than lack of information or individual hysteria.

Americans have been reared in the belief that any contact with the facts of life and death is dangerous to children. Birth, sex, dying, and death are occasions for which children have been hustled away. The ears of mothers and teachers and social workers have been filled with accounts of the terrible effects which such scenes, accidentally witnessed, have had on children's tender minds.

We know, of course, that in the slums children often see such things, but that is vaguely felt to be responsible for the amount of crime which comes out of the slums. Children must be protected, at all costs, from any close contact with the realities. Even the modern educational methods which have mocked at the flowers-and-bees stories and insisted upon telling children "the facts of life" have halted before the suggestions of telling children very much about the facts of death.

On every hand we find traces of this attitude—motion pictures which are regarded as unfit for children, plans to take the older child away when the new baby is born, disapproval of those of European or simple country background who would take a child to a funeral or allow it to see a laid-out body. Our comfortable urban classes have been protected from birth and taught that they must protect all children from these scaring contacts.

Then suddenly, and for the first time in our lifetime, there is the possibility that mothers and teachers and welfare workers will not be able to protect children from such things, that bombs may fall and people die before their eyes, that no will in the world can give them the safety from the harsh realities which we have believed are lethal to children's psychological welfare. Therefore, people are worried, worried as they would be if they were told that their children's diet for the next two or three years was to contain a daily dose of poison.

It is not merely the chance of death from bombs—for most people know that only one quarter of one per cent of the civilian population of London were casualties in the midst of a Blitz far more

terrible than American cities are likely to encounter—but it is the chance of psychological maiming from the knowledge and experience of death to others, by bombs, that seems so dangerous.

Belatedly, those who have lectured on child care and warned of the extreme sensitivity of the growing human organism are now trying to reassure mothers and teachers by telling them how tough, how superficial, how "don't carish" children naturally are. They also reiterate the point made by psychiatrists who have watched English children that if the adults are calm the children will be calm

But none of this gets at the root of the trouble. Persistently, at the back of their minds, people continue to believe, as they have been taught, that contact with death will maim their children's minds for life. Unless this basic issue is faced all the job of reassurance and information and exhortation to calmness will fail and the fear of what will happen to the children of America will remain a terrible vulnerable point in American morale.

And so the anthropologist is asked: "Is it true? Will scenes of dying mar a child's mind for life?" And to this the anthropologist can answer: "No, not unless the adults expect them to." I have seen a group of Samoan children clustered with their elders around an open grave in which a postmortem Caesarian operation was being performed, interested, curious, but unhurt, going away afterward to play, discussing the scene lightly.

Neither the adults nor the children were upset. It was sad that the mother had died, sad that the baby—yes, it was a girl and a pretty one too—had died, but people did die, every month or so in the village and those immediately bereft wept. No one shooed the children away, no one suggested that they were not able to watch quietly, as their elders. And the shared experience brought no nightmares. Yet this was a scene that would send a certain thrill of fearful repulsion down the spine of the average American adult.

On the other hand, in Bali, during an ordinary birth, when no

one had died and no one was going to die, I have seen children fall into paralyzed fear sleeps, fear from which they could not be awakened except by five minutes of severe shaking. Folklore, in Bali, surrounds a birth scene with witches, dreadful long-nailed harpies, ready to snatch the newborn child away, and children have been so terrorized by such tales that they go into these terror sleeps in the midst of all the excitement of a birth scene.

In other parts of the South Seas I have seen children take part in mourning scenes of great violence, where the mourners, arriving in canoes, ran the length of the rocking pile house and flung themselves on the corpse with such force that sometimes the whole house floor broke and the mourning crowd, adults and children, fell into the sea. But the night after scenes like this no nightmare cries rang through the village.

Children are not maimed by contact with death or with life. They are maimed if they have to face such contact alone or if all those around them expect them to be maimed, or if, as too often happens, their only contact with the facts of life and death comes to them in the death of a member of their own family. Unprepared to face any reality, and suddenly confronted with its full impact in their own families, they have, of course, been traumatized, and child-guidance experts have told us of their cases. In England, also, children who have seen members of their own family injured or killed have suffered psychologically, though not to such a degree that psychiatry cannot restore them to full functioning.

But the simple facts of life and death, as they occur in war or peace, in the community, do not hurt children. We have been overprotecting children for fifty years, and now, faced with the circumstance that we can overprotect them no longer, Americans are worried Unless they can learn to believe that their worry is needless, that they can protect their children simply by including them, serenely, within the community circle as the community faces whatever disasters may come—the children will be hurt not by

bombs, but by the isolation thrust upon them as their parents tensely put them off with feeble fibs and tales that the blackout is to keep the naughty Japs from stealing their toys. The children can stand up to reality, however grim, if the adults can, and if the adults believe in the children's strength

When those responsible for planning — citizens, welfare workers, civilian defense officials — have crossed this cultural hurdle, have shaken off the fear that no child can stand contact with death, then we can get on with the business of considering just what methods are best to give children the health and educational protection that they will need during this emergency period.

What those practical plans should be is now fairly well known. Bombed cities, sabotaged cities without adequate heat or light or sanitation, are no places for children. Many defense areas in which the majority of women are working and where living conditions are incredibly bad are very doubtful places for children.

On the other hand, foster home placement on any large scale is equally not recommended. In England far more psychological casualties have been found in children placed in foster homes away from the Blitz than among children left with their parents, schoolmates, and teachers, right in the Blitz. But from this very well-documentated fact many American planners here have drawn the hasty conclusion that therefore children should not be moved anywhere, even if by moving they would be given better health and educational opportunities.

Actually the English experience has shown that school groups, nursery school, kindergarten, and elementary-school, first grown accustomed over a few months to being away from their mothers and with their class and their teachers, can be moved to the country together, without the penalties that accompanied placing children in strange foster homes. Adjustment to school as one step away from home is something that all of us expect, that parents and children alike are prepared for. The teacher does not replace the mother in

the child's affections; there is no conflict between the own mother left behind and a foster mother on whom the child is dependent.

The United States may never have to face any sort of evacuation. But the people of the coastal cities will have to live as if air raids were a possibility for the duration. This means preparing to protect our children. Such preparation involves cultivating the belief that greater contact with the facts of life and death will not, in itself, hurt them, and the development of more nursery schools, more day nurseries, more kindergartens, closer ties between parents and teachers, will act as insurance against possible evacuation.

If evacuation should come the child who has never been away from his mother's side for half a day is the child whom it will be most difficult to protect. Left in the city, his health, his sleep, his education will be endangered. If he is taken suddenly from his mother his whole psychological adjustment will be equally endangered. Provisional weaning, a few hours every day in some sort of nursery or kindergarten for every child, will guarantee, as no other measure can, protection for our children in wartime.

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THE HOME FRONT IN WARTIME

ANNA W. M. WOLF

The home is at all times a nation's first line of defense. As the guardian of children, it is the guardian of the future itself. We have known, and the experience of England has confirmed it, that if a young child can remain close to a mother who can give him herself unchanged throughout whatever shattering experiences may befall, his essential feeling of security remains intact. Older children's security is similarly based and even for the men at the front the warm and vital things that mean home are what sustain them over miles of space and years of separation, and lie at the very core of what they are fighting for.

This is why there is bound to be concern at the inevitable trend of more and more women leaving their homes for war industries, their children, many of them under school age, consigned to the uncertain care of relatives or neighbors. Even with a day-care plan for young children adequately provided by the Government, which is far from being the case today, there is danger unless those who administer it understand the inner world of childhood and their own part in it. A young child's relations to his home, his parents and especially his mother lie at the very roots of his existence, there is no sound care possible for him which does not take this fact fully into account. Any child-caring center set up to meet the war emergency, or in peacetime, too, for that matter, should understand clearly that it exists to serve the needs not of children alone, but of parents and the American home and that it exists to build and strengthen these ties, sharing children with their parents every step of the way. At least half the job of such centers and perhaps the better half lies in the success with which they promote this sense of partnership with the home, so that every nursery school is a parent center as well as a child center with parent education as well as childhood education its prime business.

Early in the war, parents woke with a start to a sudden renewed sense of responsibility. How could they keep their children safe?—not physically safe only, how could they make them strong to meet whatever lay ahead? Has our education been too soft—too sheltering, unrealistic? Should we long ago have prepared them by some specially devised techniques for a cruel, hard, and hateful world? If so, what might these techniques consist of and who could teach them to us? Yet when the first moment of panic had passed, it became increasingly clear that the strong man is the sound man, sound in mind and feeling as well as in body and that whatever we know of how to rear our children to this kind of health would surely serve them now. Whether for the war that must be fought today or for the peace that must be made tomorrow, youth's capacity for loyalty, flexibility, self-discipline, and understanding are today as always the things that count.

There is, however, no certain formula for raising children who will *surely* be strong, healthy, energetic, able to adjust themselves readily to change and emergency. It is a formula, above all others, that we wish we possessed today. We do know that these qualities are not the result of habit training alone, or of a kind of hardening process by which a child, like the youth of Sparta, is subjected to a system of rigorous tests, until his character, like his muscles, become steeled. Such training and experience may play their part. So do the standards and cultural values of the group in which a child grows up. But back of these, a child's early relation to his parents and particularly to his mother determines character in a far more fundamental sense.

If a mother enjoys her infant and shows it; if she loves feeding him and tending him, can smile readily and handle and play with him, without doing all these things anxiously or "by the book", if she can be alert to his needs and learn what things bring him peace and a deep organic satisfaction in living, she will have gone far toward laying at least the foundations of an optimistic expectancy

that life, despite repeated blows, is nevertheless worth living. Some day, of course, a child must become self-reliant and face life without his mother. He must learn to go without many things that he wants and perform duties that are distasteful, but there is increasing evidence to show that the less rigid the discipline and the more spontaneous the enjoyment between mother and child during the first two or three years of life, the greater is a child's capacity as time goes on to meet the realities of living and accept the hardships that are bound to come. A little spoiling in fact in the usual sense of the word is not such a bad thing or so hard to undo in the later years of childhood as most of the "books" would have us believe. If the parents are in earnest about it and firm in their authority, a child does learn to live in a civilized world on a give-and-take basis with others; but he learns it more surely if the lessons are gradual and the normal period of infant dependence fully savored.

Whatever is sound treatment for young children in peacetime is equally so in wartime. They need no *special* training. The basis of future strength lies in the young child's feeling that his mother is first and foremost a creature who gives and who loves and only secondarily, and considerably later, one who denies and punishes.

As children get older, they of course need facts to think with. They need the truth, simply told but unvarnished by attempts to make it less frightening or hateful. Yes, we have to fight the Germans and even kill many of them because if we don't they will kill or enslave us . . . Father may have to go to war. "But will he come back to us?" We hope so very much. But when a man is a soldier he knows, and his mother and his wife and children must know too, that he may be killed; that would mean we would be very very sad But we would be proud too that he did what was right. If he goes away we will write letters often, and send presents. "What do you think a father far away from home would like to get at Christmas?"

Children do best when facts are faced simply and frankly. Whatever morale means it means more than a "front" and something

different from bravado. For families, it means a courageous and balanced recognition of danger or sorrow, but of dangers and sorrows that however acute need not be faced alone Any one who has lived with a child through anxiety or loss knows that this experience of sharing is what sustains him. Only the modern gently reared child has been so falsely sheltered that he may never even hear of birth or death or calamity or suffering or share the great emotions that these things bring. War will take its death toll of American families and children will deepen and mature when they stand side by side with others who must face it. In the ordeal of today and tomorrow, there is great need to return to something simpler than many of us have been used to. Tears are not indecent and grief need not be hidden away or dressed up for a child so that it becomes almost grotesquely unrecognizable. Children have a right to share. When the parents struggle to withhold facts that concern them deeply or hide away their feelings, they invariably succeed only in keeping children confused and lonely. Children need a chance to express their feelings, whether they be fear, sorrow, anxiety, or anger. So let us tell them the outlines at least of what we know and encourage them to say openly and without shame whatever they need to say For a child, strength comes not from continuous make-believe, but from facing reality side by side with parents who never try to hide what is happening and never run away.

Very little children, as we have seen, know only that the war is something big and strange that grownups talk about They are troubled only as their parents are troubled and when their fathers and mothers can go on with the usual routines of life much as usual, so can they Somewhat older boys and girls, to a large extent, regard the war as the greatest game ever played and are likely to follow its technical developments with keen interest and its heroic episodes with enthusiasm. Unless they are the kind of children for whom life is a threatening matter at best, the horror of death and destruction for millions or the possibility of its touching their lives does not

really get under their skins. Neither is the political and moral side of the struggle of much concern. Hitler and the Japanese are "bad" of course; they are ready to accept pretty much what they are told in this respect, but, except for certain exceptional children, school and home alike have found that the ideologies involved and an intellectual approach to the social and economic problems that underlie the struggle and that will play so large a part in the making of peace are not of direct interest to children much below the high-school years.

This does not mean, however, that schools and homes should complacently adopt the "business as usual" position in respect to younger children. There must, of course, be a great deal of business as usual for them and for every one, no matter how deep their concern or how wide their activities in behalf of winning the war. Yet, today, parents as well as schools must face the challenge: What are we doing for even our youngest children to make the word "democracy" come alive for them? What is this core of the faith that has led us into this war? How can we teach them so that their understanding becomes a part of their very blood and bone and sinew and so surely that they can never betray it? Whatever the schools can teach, they are working against odds unless homes too become centers for giving meaning to the spirit underlying America's cause in this war These are learned less through words and books than in daily living From the moment they find themselves members of a family, a neighborhood, or a town, children need to discover that democracy is a way of life which their parents strive to practise as the *right way*, just as they practise truthfulness, courtesy, kindliness, and justice.

In the life of the little child, this is felt first of all in his discovery that other people have equal rights with himself. Since human nature is egoistic this is no small discovery; years are required before it is really learned or accepted. The one-year-old has a right to a turn on his mother's lap as well as an older child aged four. A

sister of ten has a right to play with her own friends unmolested by brothers who tend to regard them as fair game for pranks on the part of the superior male. A mother or father who has been busy all day has a right to be tired now and then, and to expect quiet in the house when resting. Each individual is entitled to have his interests and concerns regarded as important and sincere attempts made to satisfy them wherever possible. Children need plenty of chance to talk over family frictions when they arise and make plans for happier solutions. They need to discover too that government cannot be carried on and decisions made purely on the basis of abstract justice. Things have a way of going wrong unless they are humanized; securing one's "rights" never absolves one from the obligation to be generous. Democracy means service to other citizens—and so it should be among family members from the beginning. Children discover these things by noting where their parents place their emphasis—what things are to them important things, first things.

Democracy may begin at home, but it certainly must not stop there. While children are still young they become acutely aware, too, of their parents' attitude to outsiders. Many a child who is used to finding his parents just and generous in family life must suffer a shock when he sees his mother slam the door in the face of a salesman or make peremptory demands on a servant without either knowledge of or consideration for her circumstances. Many a housewife who is polite and gracious to her own guests or her husband's business friends betrays, by her manner with servants, that she regards "the help" as an inferior class At such moments democracy, the political expression of the belief in the dignity of individuals and their equal right to consideration, suffers a shock from which it does not easily recover. Teachers will have an uphill job teaching at school what is continuously denied by the attitudes betrayed at home.

"It's all right for you to have the Bartlett and the Smith children

over any time you want, but I don't want those Polish children in our yard. Let them play on their own block with their own kind."

"What kind do you mean are their kind, Mother?"

"Oh, you know, their folks work in the mills - mill hands. They aren't the kind of children who will do you any good I don't know them and I'm not sure they're *nice* children."

"What can 'nice' mean?" wonders the recipient of this lesson Maybe it means having parents who speak English. Maybe it means your father must work at an office, not at a machine. Does it mean you should live only in this part of town? Does it mean you should not be Catholic—or you must be Catholic?

Another blow is struck at democracy in the kind of home where children hear that "a family of Jews have moved in down the street," that 'it shouldn't be permitted," that "unless this sort of thing is stopped at once, they and their kind will ruin the whole neighborhood" When their parents stand for such attitudes children can scarcely be too indignant if Hitler takes the same view on an international scale.

The important element in educating children to know what the war is all about is for parents themselves to know and to have grasped, not with their minds alone but with their hearts, the spiritual issues involved. Children need something more than formal instruction in "morals," "religion," or "democracy"; they need parents who clearly hold passionate convictions themselves If these convictions are honestly thought out and deeply felt it will not matter much whether they are "religious" as this word is commonly construed. It will not matter whether children at first only half understand them What will count is the experience of growing up with parents who believe that there are ways of life definitely better than other ways and that they are worth living and dying for. The moment tolerance becomes indifference, and an excuse for inaction, or for temporizing with injustice, that moment it becomes a vice. To help our children to develop and understand, parents

must themselves develop and understand—and search their very souls. If truth, honor, justice, and love for one's neighbor have a living value for parents, so will they in days to come for children too Such love of justice must be more than lip service. It must demand fair play for all including even those who are under suspicion, even those of enemy alien descent. Parents who really have justice cannot stand by while their children cold-shoulder the child of German descent or ridicule the Japanese members of their community or steal fruit from the corner grocer whose name and accent are Italian. When parents shrug their shoulders at such acts as "natural in wartime" they give the lie to the basic principles for which this war is fought.

Although in any plan for young children, this kind of consideration of the emotional and often unconscious basis of education must take the lead, at adolescence, if all has gone well, there are significant changes. Although it is by no means true of all adolescents, the years from twelve to sixteen usually mark a widening in the range of interest and an intellectual awakening of the greatest importance. Now the youngster really begins to be ready for facts and theories and the exciting battle with ideas. This is the period of "jam sessions" and explorative impulses into all kinds of adult living and thinking. The young person begins to take what he is taught much less for granted. He becomes argumentative, skeptical, and critical, and often, therefore, very exasperating. He demands to know how things came to be as they are and why it would not have been sensible to run them altogether differently Here, then, is the moment when education can go forward consciously and directly and move at an amazing rate Overnight almost, the child changes into a citizen, or at least is clamoring to do so if we have ears to listen

Adults, if they are to make good their right to be the guides of youth, must be able to lead the way In addition to their earlier experiences with democratic living, young people now need hard factual instruction They need information about the problems and

techniques of a democracy. They need historical, political, economic, scientific education. They need a chance to think out loud in contact with maturer minds than their own, mature enough to be patient with youths' apparent dogmatism, flightiness, and instability. In our present-day life, there have been too few opportunities for young and old to share real experiences and blaze trails together. Perhaps now at this great turning point in America's life, ways can be found for them to join hands again and explore together the past history and present problems of the nation.

As a first step, parents might do well to expand their own knowledge. Many adults, even those who are American-born, know very little of the history of the United States. Though they may once have "had a course" back in high school or college, there is scarcely any one who would not profit by more reading and study today. Every American should have a pretty thorough acquaintance with at least one biography each of Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, and Lincoln. He needs at least a bowing acquaintance with Roger Williams, Tom Paine, William Penn, Benjamin Franklin, Andrew Jackson, William Lloyd Garrison, Robert E. Lee, Thomas Edison, and Woodrow Wilson—not just a vague idea about them, as that "so-and-so discovered electricity" or was the "confederate general during the Civil War," but enough to know in what setting they lived and worked and why they were unique and significant. There is also, the literature of America that has much to tell. Louisa Alcott and Mark Twain and, more recently, Theodore Dreiser are only a few of the old-timers who still hold top places among more recent fiction. American folk music, especially that of Stephen Foster and the Negro spirituals, is not to be forgotten. Either may be had in recorded music. Besides these, American painting warms us by the beauty and meaning in the everyday things that we personally know so well.

It is also important for Americans to know who other Americans are, their national origins and how their ancestors happen to come

here. This ought to dispel the notion that the "true American" is of British origin—and a Protestant—a rooted idea, at least among the privileged classes. Actually less than a half are.

Since isolationism is a thing of the past, no parent or teacher can stop short with a knowledge, no matter how excellent, of America alone. We are now one of twenty-eight United Nations standing shoulder to shoulder in the greatest fight of history. Yet even those who have had the best of high-school or university educations have spent scant time in becoming acquainted with the problems of Mexico or the other American republics or with the great nations of China or Russia, who now are bearing the heaviest burdens and fighting the major portion of America's battles. Indeed the whole East should claim our closest attention. Source material on these nations are still harder to find than they will be a few years hence, yet already there is a move within the schools and on the popular lecture platform to include at least some knowledge of these nations in the curriculum and to make more information available to every one. But this is not enough Parents need such knowledge too; the conversations at home that flow from such knowledge are among the valuable experiences of growing up.

"Only an informed America is an invincible America," proclaims a radio announcer. Good, as far as it goes, one might answer, but it is not enough even to know and to understand. Heaven knows we must *do*, we must *act* as well, and refuse to let our youth be satisfied with inaction no matter how "informed."

Children can help in the war effort, they are more likely to help if their parents lead the way and if they take the trouble, for example, to let their children in on family problems and family plans Most of us are beginning to stagger and rub our eyes a little at the present income-tax schedule Though we have not really begun to feel the pinch there will be a year or so from now, children should be expected to bear their share of household economies. Putting a part of one's small allowance into war savings stamps is one way;

being careful about such trifles as soap and toilet paper and electricity is another. Fewer motion pictures, fewer ice cream sodas, perhaps staying at home instead of going to camp, the State university instead of an expensive college, sharing a room with another member of the family where space means higher rents - all these are possibilities too.

As a rule parents are too secretive about their incomes and their expenses There is no good reason why a child of fourteen or more should not know in black and white what the family budget looks like, the earnings on one side, the expenses on the other, so much for rent, for insurance, for food, and all the other items, not to mention the big slice laid aside for taxes There is every reason why his suggestions for managing and alloting sums should be asked and if possible adopted. Seeing the actual figures is a graphic lesson in why the family cannot have everything it used to have. Parents are usually far too unwilling to let their children make sacrifices Many a mother will deprive herself or her husband, quite unfairly, rather than expect a daughter to forgo a socially desirable dancing class The clothing budget for the charming eighteen-year-old who "can only be young once" is often far out of proportion to the total family income. Children's sacrifices when they want to make them should, within reasonable limits, be accepted and every home should expect sacrifices "from each according to his means" The more these are made voluntarily the more mature the child in question is likely to be. There are times however when parents have to make the decision for a child and face him courageously with their decision and the reason for it. It is astonishing to what lengths many parents will go rather than risk the anger of a disappointed offspring.

Children nearly always respond to facts and figures and straightforward, graphic appeals to do a job or to forgo a pleasure when these are really necessary. They like to see a job finished too, and know just how it serves the purpose of winning the war even

though it helps only indirectly. If they can actually be present when the rubber or the scrap metal they have collected is weighed and carted off, the satisfaction is enormous. It is unfortunate that children who take part in this kind of salvage work cannot visit the plants where the rubber and the metal is actually converted into new materials and follow it through to its final destination in a gun or plane. For obvious reasons our production plants must be carefully guarded and cannot permit visitors Current magazines, however, publish photographs and diagrams and lively descriptive texts. These may be as good a substitute as we can find.

Sincerity lies at the basis of success with children They have an uncanny way sooner or later of detecting "the bunk" in any project that has no real use. Never should they be encouraged to do something "because it's nice for them to think they're helping" or "good for them to learn to make sacrifices" The child who announced that by "walking carefully on rainy days" he can make his rubbers last longer needs to be shown at once that it does not work that way, but that there are other things he can do to help. Sooner or later he will figure out the fallacy for himself or be laughed at by some one. When that happens he will resent his parents' letting him go on looking foolish The child who entrusts his mother with the tin cans out of which he has conscientiously cut tops and bottoms and hammered the remainder flat has a right to feel let down if his mother neglects to turn them in to the proper authorities. Indifferent or lazy parents can do a lot of harm.

While the government in Washington struggles with the stupendous problem of manpower, knowing that the problem of womanpower too is just around the corner, the organization of "youth power" is just beginning to get under way. Though sporadic and ill distributed, there are some promising signs.

Every one knows what excellent work the Scouts organizations have done in salvage work, partly because they got down to business and did a hard, necessary job well—partly because the grumpy

housewife is more willing to go look for old rubber or save tin cans for a nice looking youngster than for any other visitor who comes knocking at her door. Most of the youth organizations offer technical courses in mechanical fields, in food conservation, and—what will be needed increasingly as women enter industry—in the field of child care and home relief. The schools are making a beginning too and offer evening extension courses of many kinds. Boys clubs make model airplanes of very genuine use in the training of an aviation cadet. Through the Four H Clubs New Victory Corps, the Department of Agriculture in Washington has agents throughout the vast rural sections of the United States. The Land Army, the International Student Service, and the United States Employment Service offer a chance for older boys and girls to serve the nation through farm work. The Junior Work Camps are organizing vacation work projects for high-school youth. Several schools and colleges have similar plans.

All over America there has been a new surge of love for country. It was coming even before the war when artists and writers and poets and song writers among her native sons and daughters saw more and more deeply into the beautiful things of American life and American dreams—when the plain people everywhere knew more and more surely that they loved these things and that they belonged to them. The war has awakened us to the realization that all this is in peril and that every American must work and fight to preserve what he loves. But knowing and loving America must not blind us to her faults or keep us from acknowledging that great civilizations have fallen before because the enemy without found them weakened within. Those of us who are most concerned for youth and the future have a special responsibility to see that they face with clear courage the dark spots and the failures of this country as well as its beauties and achievements. Seeing these things clearly, youth cannot fail to be challenged by our failures and strive to find solutions. Along with the practical, the necessary, the im-

mediate job to be done for America in wartime, we must never forget that unless the world to come after is a better world, the war will have been fought in vain.

Much is said of the "American way" as though we had already found the right way, the final way. Yet perhaps the greatest thing about America is that it is still the "land of opportunity"—not in the old sense of limitless frontiers and boundless wealth, but because it is a place where the American dream may still come true. So far this dream has not come true Political democracy itself is a faulty affair threatening constantly to fall into the hands of professional politicians and cliques unless we the people wake up and keep vigil. Industrial democracy is a concept rather recently born, but with it at last we have discovered that no man is "free" who lives under the constant threat of being without the necessities of life. "Freedom from want" is among the things we have now declared we are fighting to establish in the world. But how to do it? So much for the dream itself, but the work "of making it come true" is still to be done.

In spite of its great wealth and high standard of living, a third of the citizens of the United States are still improperly housed. In spite of the magnificence of its farm lands, the plight of the tenant farmer, the problems of soil conservation, and the distribution of the nation's goods to those who need it most are still to be solved. Until war industries made their appearance to give the unemployment problem a shot in the arm, we were still limping along in our attack on that problem and today have no clear plan on the books for meeting it more adequately when the end of the war ushers it in again Despite the achievements of medical science, public health in this country is poor; opportunities for medical care in many sections are appallingly meager, despite our system of public education there are places where it has failed and where we lag in applying even the obvious remedy. The relations of capital and labor continue to be strained and the problem of how industry can

function through democratic and responsible channels are still to be worked out.

Though we are fighting a war against Hitler and the selfish doctrine of race superiority, America itself is riddled with race prejudice and religious intolerance. Anti Semitism lurks always just beneath the surface. Injustice and intolerance to the Negro who forms at least a tenth of our population is a national problem of such magnitude that it may one day threaten our democracy at its very roots unless we study it *now*, plan *now*, take courageous action *now*. The lessons of this war should have taught us the folly of head-in-the-sand living. They should point clearly to the consequences of asking any group of citizens to fight for democracy when they are excluded from most of its fruits; to the consequences of forever pushing the Negro down to the bottom of the heap when there are jobs to be had, posts to be filled. The exclusion of Negroes from employment in many war industries against expressed injunctions from Washington have been a national disgrace in which both employers and labor unions have been guilty. Lately, however, certain unions have taken a courageous position not only in admitting Negroes to full membership but in insisting that Negro delegates be admitted to the hotels of the towns where they held conventions.

All these things are properly the concern of youth—not to solve today out of their inexperience, but to face today as problems to be studied, since tomorrow it is they who will be in the saddle and must meet them. They are not for the future, they are for now. Unless we are strong and united within, we cannot meet the enemy without. Unless our health is sound and our economic life is sound, and unless our citizens of whatever color or religion or national origin or social status know that they are fighting for a world in which their chance to have the good things of life is not handicapped at the outset, we will never be able to fight this fight to victory. If we lose it, it will be because of these inner weak-

nesses, not because our potential strength falls short of the enemy's.

This future world in which our children will lead their lives and rear *their* children is most deeply the concern of parents. Our problems whether national or international are not alone for statesmen, for military men, or for scholars. They are for all who care what becomes of youth. Parents may no longer rest content merely as stay-at-homes. The duty to do well the small tasks of daily life has surely never meant that parents should cease to be citizens or give up the duty to feel deeply on matters of the state and of moral and spiritual truth What our children need from their parents is something more than "instruction," important as this is. They need to discover that their parents are people of passionate convictions about things which they believe to be dearer than life itself. It is a solemn moment for a child when he discovers that his parents are deeply shaken by things greater than themselves, greater even than home and family, that there are things worth dying for, beliefs to which man dedicates himself without counting the cost. Although it takes years for a child to discover what these things are and why they are so precious, the moment that the discovery of their parents' fervor creates the first stir within him, the birth of an adult gets under way

Parents, especially thoughtful parents, have been too tentative in what they have offered their children They have been too afraid of being "unfair," or "imposing their own point of view" on a child, or of not allowing him "freedom to develop in his own way." Surely giving a child freedom to develop, a doctrine with which there is no quarrel, never meant muzzling the adults who are part of his life, or imposing on them the ridiculous obligation of "presenting both sides" in such a way that a young person is left with the conclusion that nothing, no matter how patently evil, can be called bad that there is no truth, which, if somebody doubts it, may not as fairly be called untruth The geographers of Columbus's day, in expounding the doctrine that the earth is round, never

cautioned their pupils to accept it tentatively since there were those who believed it to be flat. On the contrary, they stated flatly, "*This* is true *That* is false," and could not honorably do otherwise.

There are times, and one of them is certainly today, when the moral order requires the positiveness of science. Moral judgments, it is true, like scientific ones, must be based on knowledge. We need to understand. We need to explore quite dispassionately how movements like fascism and monsters like Hitler come into being to ensnare the minds and souls of thousands of relatively innocent men and women, how too the evils of our own country came to be. But just as we study crime, delinquency, perversion, and disease without doubting their evil, so also must we be clear where political and moral evils lie. To do anything else in the name of tolerance or liberalism is indeed to commit moral suicide

What parents will teach their children will depend ultimately on what they themselves believe If we, who are parents today, believe nothing much; if the moral universe has, for us, no great realities; if the spectacle of injustice does not make us burn to set it right; if human suffering touches in us nothing that impels us to take action; if the spectacle of power for the sake of enslaving the majority of mankind does not inspire us to build our own strength great in order to free it—then indeed our children will be spiritually empty. No church or school in the world to whom we may entrust their education can ever atone for so devastating a loss. What we tell our children can be nothing but what we know ourselves, not what we know to say with our lips, but what we are so deeply committed to with our lives that though we say nothing our children find it out from the moment they are born and so cannot fail to carry it with them into maturity.

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SCHOOL CHILDREN IN WARTIME

J. LOUIS DESPERT

INTRODUCTION

The importance of the school, considerable as it is in peace, becomes paramount in wartime. The literature which has recently come from England and other countries engaged in active war operations emphasizes this importance. In England, the closing of the schools was soon recognized as an unwise move, since it helped increase juvenile delinquency and the breaking down of morale. The literature also shows that teachers not only continued to function as educators, and morale builders; they also participated in the many investigations carried out in schools, reception centers, and foster homes. Such investigations aimed at gaining some insight into the problems of children in wartime.

The English literature, chiefly concerned with the problem of evacuation, is often confusing and contradictory. This, undoubtedly, is due to the fact that systematic investigations were not carried out, through lack of preparation, funds, or adequately trained people. It is difficult to analyze the factors involved in the apparent discrepancies. Authors are not agreed on the increase of delinquency, the frequency, intensity, and permanency of symptoms, the age groups most affected by the war, the conditions that made for good adjustment in foster homes, the intellectual status as a factor in adaptation, etc. Symptomatology is, in general, poorly defined, and the material lacks organization. Some English writers, such as Burt, Valentine, Bowley, and Vernon, have been aware of the discrepancies and deficiencies; and Thomas concluded, "There are few safe generalizations either about the material conditions or the personalities concerned in evacuation." On one point there is almost complete agreement, namely, that the effects of evacuation were worse than those of bombing, owing to the separation of the

children from their parents. The symptom most frequently reported by the English writers was enuresis. Another point on which there was fairly general unity of opinion, though the evidence was retrospective, was that children who presented difficulties during the time of observation had had previous difficulties. There is an almost universal agreement on the need to preserve the family unity, and especially to avoid separation of the younger children from their parents.

Few reports have thus far appeared on the reactions of American children to the war. For this reason a report of a study recently completed in the Payne Whitney Nursery School may be of interest at this time.

PAYNE WHITNEY NURSERY SCHOOL STUDY OF CHILDREN'S REACTIONS TO THE WAR

Studies on personality development in young children have been carried out since 1937 at the Payne Whitney Nursery School. Detailed behavior observations are made daily on the children, complete mechanical recordings of individual play sessions are obtained. For the description of the method used in this investigation, the reader is referred to "A Method for the Study of Personality Reactions in Pre-school Age Children by Means of Analysis of Their Play." In 1940 a special study of unselected total records was initiated; namely, the study of anxiety and fears in young, normal children.

Directly after the entrance of the United States into the war, a circular was sent to the parents of 144 children who had been admitted to the Payne Whitney Nursery School from 1932 to 1942. However, since research as described above was initiated in 1937, report of findings is, in the main, based on the records of 63 children admitted from 1937 to 1942. The following is a copy of the circular addressed to the parents:

Suggestions Which Might Help in the Reporting of Observations

—Have the children talked about the war? (Please indicate the age of the children whose reactions are described by you.)

—If so, can you recall what they have said and in what circumstances? What explanations have been given about the war? (By parents, teachers, others.) About the present emergency? (Air-raid alarms, blackouts, possible death, and injuries.)

—Do they listen to the radio? Or ask questions about news in the newspapers? Reaction to motion pictures with war as a theme or newsreels (Anxiety, indifference, etc. Give words.)

—What is their reaction to the information obtained through above? (As much as possible, quote exact words.)

—What is the family's general feeling about the war situation as brought home to the children? Confidence about the ultimate end? Uncertainty about the ability to cope with a possible attack? Etc.?

—Is there any one in the family who is especially anxious? If so, what is the relation to the child under consideration? What influence on the child?

—Has the child shown changes in behavior which may be related to the war situation, either chronologically, spontaneously by the child, or as observed by the parents? (Irritability, restlessness, talkativeness, shyness, lack of playfulness, fears, nightmares, bed wetting, nail biting, change in appetite, vomiting, unwillingness to have adults leave the house, etc.)

—Have the children's games changed? Listlessness, quieter play? More aggressive games? Requests for guns, swords, soldiers, etc? Or, on the contrary, a feeling of taboo about aggressive games? How has this situation been handled?

—When expressing fear as related to the war, was that fear about parents, self, others? Fear of death? Lack of food? Fear of loss of individual property and economic security? Fear of people or specific individuals?

—Have there been expressed feeling of hostility or hatred toward a people, or individuals? If so, in what terms?

The most conspicuous finding was that all children who became anxious at the outset of the war had previously shown anxiety reactions of varying degree and intensity. The war had served to reactivate an actual or latent problem. Such children had been insecure and had shown a certain rigidity of personality, marked especially by apprehensiveness before new situations or unknown people. Analysis of the records showed that the children's insecurity was referrable to their unsatisfactory relations to one or both parents. A child who feels sure of his parents' love seems to trust his parents to deal adequately with any danger threatening him. However, not all children who had shown anxiety in the course of their earlier development exhibited anxiety as a result of the war. The close relation between the child's and his parents' own insecurity ties up closely with a statement made early by the writers of *The Cambridge Evacuation Survey*; namely, that further evacuation plans should consider "what might be called the 'nervous family' as well as the nervous child."

The principal manifestations of anxiety aroused by the war were: clinging to the mother; excessive concern over the war, associated with repetitive questioning; mildly compulsive behavior; night terrors; increased motor activity and restlessness; irritability; apprehensiveness about unfamiliar activities; feeding problems; vomiting. The older children also showed aggressive behavior, fears, and compulsions. Enuresis was not reported.

Very young children did not show any anxiety referrable to the war, owing to their lack of intellectual insight. Such children used war terminology dissociated from its emotional content. The Payne Whitney Nursery School is so located that the children are exposed almost daily to the machinery of war: they see warships, guns, tanks, planes, etc. Girl No. 55, I.Q. 155, the younger of two children, says:

> I'm going to tell you a story. The daddy was working at a desk and a bomb came and fell, and the daddy shooted at it with water. Then an-

other bomb came and fell and the daddy shooted at it with his gun. Then a bomb came and broke the house all down, and the people all said, "*Bring me a house Bring me toilets and food and houses.*" . . . One day I make a gun, I shoot myself in the war, then I get killed.

Another illustration is shown in a conversation between one boy and two girls, four to five years of age, who talk about Germans and the war:

Who has got the right time? I have twenty of seven. M———, what have you?

Eight o'clock.

Oh, hurry and clean the house before the Germanies come. Oh, they're at the door—the German people.

Oh, tell them to go home and come at ten o'clock

Very young children, however, react strongly to their parents' anxiety, irrespective of word content and intellectual insight.

Whenever children showed anxiety, they also exhibited spontaneous mechanisms obviously set as defenses against it. Abreactive play belongs here: war games, aggressive games, often associated with destructive tendencies. "Doing something about it" is another mechanism. Several of the children were very creative about ways and means of dealing with the war, and two of them formulated "good plans": one (boy, 9 years, 0 months, I.Q 122) for the invasion of Germany; the other (girl, 6 years, 3 months, I.Q. 129, 130), for the raising of the Normandie from her pier Both children proposed to submit their plans to the President of the United States.

Participation, as a spontaneous reaction, can also be interpreted as a defense set against anxiety. This is illustrated by a boy L E., the older of two children, I.Q. 126, who was 10 years, 2 months old at the time of Pearl Harbor. He was admitted to the Payne Whitney Psychiatric Clinic at 9 years, 2 months, for "stuttering." As observed in the clinic, this was a severe, predominantly tonic speech disorder, with associated vasomotor manifestations, dysfunction in

respiratory rhythm, and facial tics. Interviews at the clinic in the course of one year had shown the case to be one of anxiety neurosis with obsessive compulsive features, and speech dysfunction. The father was an insecure, indecisive individual. The mother, a domineering, rigid woman with exacting standards, played an important part in the genesis of the neurosis. The child was hostile to his younger sibling, a girl, who was the mother's favorite child. For lack of space, only the data pertinent to the point under consideration are presented. At the time of New York's first air raid alarm, the boy showed an exacerbation of his main symptoms; namely, stuttering and anxiety. He had many dreams in which he tried to escape bombing by making off on his bicycle. At the first opportunity, he offered his services as a messenger between air-raid-warden posts, and was able to get a great deal of relief in this activity, until, for extraneous reasons, his services were no longer requested.

The spontaneous defense mechanisms cited above are familiar to the therapist, and in his treatment approach he makes use of them. It is also a well established fact that one of the most important phases of a morale building program is participation in the war effort. Dealing with realities alleviates the anxiety about possible impending dangers.

Hero worship, also a protective mechanism, is seen in the case of a boy of 7 years, who has "papered" the walls of his room with pictures of General MacArthur.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Because of fundamental differences in sources of information and methods of approach, it is impossible to make an adequate comparison between the reports which have come out of England and other warring countries and the reports on American children's reactions to the war. However, from the totality of the reports, a few conclu-

sions may be reached, and their positive aspect outlined in the form of suggestions.

1. *Preparation for emergencies.* If and when air-raid alarms or bombings become realities, the teacher's responsibility will be greatly increased, since the largest group affected by such emergencies seems to have been children of elementary-school age The fact that all children who developed anxiety symptoms had been anxious previously emphasizes the need for early recognition of those children who might become upset. Teachers have, over other individuals, the advantage of their knowledge of children in their charge. They know who among them has shown a tendency to become upset under stress (illness, or death in the family, change of class, separation from familiar playmates, frustration as a result of failure, etc.). Such children require additional support. Attention is called especially to quiet, inhibited children who experience difficulties with changes in routine. Rigidity of the personality with tendencies toward compulsive (repetitive) behavior rather than aggressive manifestations represents a significant danger signal. In organizing the groups, leaders should be selected among the more stable children, and activities without much responsibility assigned to the more anxious individuals. The less stable children could thus be inconspicuously supported by more stable ones. The entrusting of responsibilities to leaders holds true of teachers as well as children, and the personalities of teachers, usually well known to their principals, should be taken into account in general planning. The immediate effects (on her group) of the teacher's anxiety in times of emergency need not be emphasized A careful analysis of the reactions of school children following the first air-raid alarm in New York should bring out sharp differences between the degrees in the intensity and the duration of symptoms as related to group reactions and personal problems.

Since the child's security and stability have their roots in the

family constellation, the orientation of the problem of the child's welfare in wartime cannot be purely individual Its solution reaches out beyond the confines of child guidance Mental hygiene has done much to spread an awareness of the significance of behavior distortions and emotional conflicts, and to encourage early seeking of psychiatric help. In this connection, teachers are often the agency for referral, since deviations from normal behavior in many cases are observed for the first time in the school. In this area, again, teachers have a role to play, owing to their knowledge of the parents' attitudes. While this knowledge may be somewhat limited, since it proceeds from superficial contacts, when added to the insight into the child's own attitudes, it may help to build up an integrated picture of much significance for the early recognition of neurotic behavior, both in the child and his parents.

As regards evacuation, the decision rests upon military authorities, though planning for evacuation and reception care has been prepared by several military and civilian organizations. If and when evacuation is considered necessary, teachers are bound to play an important part for which they are now preparing.

2. *School activities.* It is recalled that participation in the war effort is a powerful mechanism to allay anxiety. The Russian reports have stressed this aspect of school life and the adaptation of the school program to the communal needs created by the war; and in the United States, school children have contributed much to the salvage campaign, buying of war stamps, etc. One of the anxious children of the Payne Whitney Nursery School study (boy No. 16, 9 years, 0 months, I.Q. 122) says, "The real difference between children and grown-ups is this. [Holds his hands a foot or so apart] . . . Children should be allowed to play a more active part than eating nutritious food and getting plenty of sleep."

Boys from 15 to 18 or 20 (depending on the ultimate outcome of the draft) have more to offer than has been asked of them so

far. To a child under 10, a boy of 16 or 17 is a man. His moral influence over the younger children could be very valuable at a time when the male figure has been removed from the family group, either as father or older brother. This is especially true of boys for whom the father's or older brother's induction means more than the removal of their presence, but is unconsciously interpreted as a threat to the male sex. In the elaboration of plans for defense nursery schools, kindergartens, and recreation centers, women have been called upon to volunteer. Adolescent boys could be constructively used in a similar capacity. In the reports on the initial increase in juvenile delinquency, two observations have a significant relation to this point: the increase in delinquency for New York white children (first 6 months of 1942) was 23 per cent in the 7-to-15-year-old group; reports from England have stressed the absence of the father as a factor in the breaking down of discipline. The writer has, with striking clinical results, suggested the bringing of a male individual into the home when a young child has become aggressive, or, on the contrary, overdependent on his mother or other female members of the family.

The continuity of the child's relation to his father is essential to his emotional adjustment. For the young child it is to a large extent by concrete means that this continuity can be assured. Exchanges of small tokens, personal notes and letters, bits of drawing, collecting of insignia, and data on the arms in which the father serves, etc., are concrete expressions of his affection and admiration for his father. While the bulk of such expressions come from the home, the school can help in keeping alive the image of the father, or the "big brother."

Pamphlets from the Children's Bureau and the Office of Civilian Defense deal adequately with many details of children's and adolescents' participation in the war effort, and the role of the school in upholding the principles of democracy

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FEDERAL AID FOR EDUCATION BILL S. 1313

All school administrators and teachers should interest themselves in the Federal aid for education provisions of the present bill before Congress, S 1313

Probably never before in the history of our nation have the development and conservation of human resources been of more vital importance Justly proud of an enviable record of education for a participation in our national war effort, school officials have a right to demand Federal support in meeting the imposed restrictions and increased demands growing out of that effort.

In the interest of a generation of frustrated youths, the enormous responsibility that will be passed on to them must be eased, as largely as possible, by the best training that it is possible for us to give them. Such opportunities to equip themselves for the long and difficult task that confronts them must be equalized and nationwide, if they are to bear the burden successfully.

Bulletins, copies of Bill S 1313, and other information relating to Federal aid for education, can be secured from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N W , Washington, D C.

HIGH SCHOOL VICTORY CORPS

ETHEL PERCY ANDRUS

Youth is the age of idealism, energy, patriotism, and tremendous capacity for production. Yet last year, from Maine to California, high-school boys and girls were confused, restive, questioning "What can we do to help?" Today from Washington the challenging answer has been given:

"Join the High School Victory Corps. Prepare for service tomorrow in the armed forces by preparing for service in the high school today. Your nation needs you, needs your strength, your resourcefulness, your youth, but more even she needs your skill, your techniques, your schooling. She needs trained manpower, manpower of both sexes, grounded in mathematics, in science, in electricity, in aerodynamics, in language skills; she needs with that trained manpower, strength, endurance, precision, and discipline; she needs you, the best you that you and the high school can make of you. Your school and you yourself, may not—must not—fail her."

To mobilize high-school students for this more effective preparation and for participation in wartime service, the United States Office of Education working in conjunction with the War, Navy, and Civil Aeronautics Departments and the War Manpower Commission held in Washington, August 28–31, 1942, a National Institute on Education and the War. The President sent to the Conference the following statement:

To the Educators of the United States.

Our schools, public and private, have always been molds in which we cast the kind of life we wanted. Today, what we all want is victory, and beyond victory a world in which free men may fulfill their aspirations So we turn again to our educators and ask them to help us mold men and women who can fight through to victory. We ask that every schoolhouse become a service center for the home front And we pray that our young

people will learn in the schools and in the colleges the wisdom and forbearance and patience needed by men and women of good will who seek to bring to this earth a lasting peace.

[Signed] Franklin D. Roosevelt

The keynote speech of the Conference was made at the opening session by Lieutenant General Brehon B. Somervell, Commanding General, Services of Supply, War Department:

We are engaged in total war. . . The job of the armed forces is to win this total war on the battlefront. The job of industry is to furnish the weapons and supplies needed by the armed forces to carry on total war. The job of the schools in this total war is to educate the nation's manpower for war and for the peace that follows.

We can lose this total war on the battlefront as a direct result of losing it on the educational front. Education is the backbone of an army. This was never more true than it is today — now.

Our Army today is an army of specialists. Out of every 100 men inducted into the service, sixty-three are assigned to duties requiring specialized training. We aren't getting those sixty three specialists through the induction centers. But modern mechanized warfare dictates that we must have them.

Taking only those specialties in which the Army has found major shortages, we find a total of 62,853 lacking in every 400,000 men inducted. That adds up to 838,040 in an Army of 4,000,000 men.

Yes, these shortages of trained manpower — of men trained in the fundamentals of jobs that must be done in a modern army — are much too serious. The situation is not getting better. It is fast getting worse. The specialist field is being combed and recombed. The supply of trained men is dwindling by the day.

We're in a hurry to put into the field a fighting force capable of overcoming those who seek to destroy everything for which America stands; who seek to destroy America herself. Our job is to teach men to fight. We cannot long continue to take the time and facilities needed for this job and use them on a job which can have been done before the induction of men into the Army. This is your job in this total war.

It is the job of the schools and colleges of America to provide the opportunity for every youth to equip himself for a place in winning the war.

You must do this, regardless of cost, time, inconvenience, the temporary sidetracking of non-war objectives, or even the temporary scrapping of peace-time courses

There must be an all-out effort on the education front. Let us be realistic. Every able-bodied boy is destined at the appointed age for the armed services.

Is this necessary? It is so necessary that all other values depend upon it

Paul V. McNutt, Federal Security Administrator and Chairman of the War Manpower Commission, in his speech said:

The United States Government needs education today as it never did in the history of our Nation. Our schools are part of our victory production assembly lines. Our schools are also part of the Army and Navy training program.

There have been many definitions of education I will give you a short one suited to this grave hour. Education is the shortest distance between two points. Our Nation today is a contestant in the greatest war of all history. All our energies, all our resources of men and materials, are being mobilized to carry us from the position of contestant to another point—victory Education can help us to shorten the distance to victory. Our Army and Navy are in themselves huge training institutions. Many of our industries maintain training-within-industry programs But our schools, colleges, and libraries are the institutions to which we turn for basic training The better they do their task, the shorter the road to victory.

And so was launched the High School Victory Corps, a national volunteer organization designed to mobilize high-school youth. Its sponsor is the United States Office of Education working in conjunction with the Departments of War, Navy, and Civil Aeronautics. It is the realistic answer to "What shall we do?"

Youth is thus brought into the cooperative business of making possible a victory for the Allies, and youth proudly accepts his role of recognized participant and contributor The high-school lad realizes that with the lowering of the draft age he will soon be in the struggle. He realizes too with the pyramiding need for planes, for ammunition, for food, and for provisions that his sister and his

sweetheart are as surely drafted. Something stabilizing, yet something dynamic, has come into the lives of high-school boys and girls and into their school. There is the urgency, the desire to measure up, the need of meeting exacting requirements, the novelty of knowing that the Army and the Navy and the Air Corps are counting on them, will be interested in their high-school work, will be wanting to know if they are physically fit, if they have courage and endurance, if they have learned teamwork with their fellows and their school officers, if they can take it and give it and like it. This war and the nation's mobilization of youth into the Victory Corps have dignified high schools themselves and their work.

To qualify for membership is now the endeavor of every high-school youth, to deserve well of the honor is their hope and their intention. To the teachers, the call is equally challenging. They are in the Army now, and eager to win their "E" for war service, determined to give every one of their students the best of themselves, and intent that their pupils qualify in basic training according to their capacity. As never before, teachers are considering themselves and their work significant, realizing that they must shoulder duties new and heavier, and that if fighting with learning is the slogan of victory, a close correlation of schooling and war effort becomes imperative.

Since schools have become a part of the victory production assembly line, teachers are reviewing former techniques and practices. They are screening out the obsolete, the present nonessentials, and the "postponeables," and strengthening and emphasizing only those that survive the acid test of the war needs of the nation and the emergency needs of the community. High schools of 1942 decidedly cannot afford to do business as usual.

The announced objectives of the Corps are:

1. Guidance of youth into that critical service or occupation in which the student can make the most effective war contribution

2. Wartime citizenship to ensure better understandings of all phases of the war, its significance, its progress, and its problems
3. Physical fitness
4. Voluntary military drill for prospective members of armed forces
5. Competence and adaptation in science and mathematics
6. Preflight training for those preparing for various types of air service
7. Pre-induction training for critical occupations in armed forces and war production
8. Community services including preparation for work in essential service occupations of civilian life

Application for general membership is made in writing, and is itself a pledge of earnest endeavor and dedicated effort toward preparation for adequate service.

The student's program of studies, if approved, must include a program of school courses and of physical fitness appropriate to his abilities and needs, in the light of his probable contribution to the nation's war effort. His extracurricular activities should be at least one important continuing or recurring wartime activity or service, such as some phases of civilian defense, Red Cross service, scale model airplane building, farm aid or part-time employment, salvage campaigns, care of small children of working mothers, gardening, etc.

Upon acceptance for general membership—and qualification is within the reach of all—the member is authorized to wear the general insignia of the Victory Corps, a chevron of vermillion red in the form of a block V. The ceremony of induction into membership may serve not only as a distinction to the members but also as a combination school and community celebration for participation in by patriotic societies, veteran groups, community organizations, parents, and members of the armed forces, all of whom may be lay officers or advisers of the Corps.

Students within two years of completing high school are eligible for admission to one of five special divisions of the Victory Corps with qualifications representing the most effective preparation for one type of service or support within the framework of the high-school curriculum. The uniform organizational pattern throughout the nation plans for:

Division	*Insignia Device*
Air Service	a plane propeller
Land Service	a conventionalized eagle
Sea Service	a fouled anchor
Production Service	blade of wheat surrounded by a gear
Community Service	a square cross

Each special service division has an insignia which may be worn on Victory Corps caps, armbands, or on uniforms, a device in white on a disc of navy blue, superimposed upon the vermillion red V of the Corps.

All five special divisions have a series of five or six qualifying hurdles, three of which must be met for acceptance. In all divisions, the pursuing of a program of physical fitness and a program of military drill meets two of these prerequisites. The other requirements apply to the specific service. The potential flying or ground officer in the Air Service Division, for instance, should be able on graduation to offer three years of mathematics and a year of physics and preferably in addition a course in preflight aeronautics. The potential ground crew maintenance man, on the other hand, should offer preflight aeronautics and work in automobile mechanics, radio, electricity, or aircraft maintenance or repair. Requirements facing the Land Service Division are a minimum of one year each of mathematics, science, and shop. The Sea Service Division requires courses in mathematics preferably through plane trigonometry and at least one year in science, preferably physics, also, if possible, the study of the elements of navigation. Besides

courses essentially prevocational in nature—agricultural, trade, or industrial—the Production Service Division requires part-time work, either paid or voluntary, in some form of production. Members of the Community Service Division should be planning for work in community or other service occupations such as teaching, social work, medicine, nursing, dentistry, or other professional service, distributive or commercial service, homemaking, child care, home nursing, nutrition, or similar work

Large schools and small schools alike are challenged. No school can fail to join nor fail to do its part. It may be that only one or two periods a day can be devoted to some form of pre-induction training; it may be the entire plant and its facilities will be dedicated for the duration. It may be only particular students may be provided special training. But large schools or small schools, the nature and number of special service divisions in any one school will be dependent upon many factors, such as its curriculum, its equipment, and its personnel. However concentration in the student's program toward his own war future and responsibilities should be definite, practical, and immediate.

It is in this field of student purpose and heightened morale and in the concomitant curricular changes that the Victory Corps makes its greatest contributions. No matter the size of the school or the faculty, the deep-felt wish and need of schools to dedicate themselves to the nation's cause has long been a determining guide point for their planning

The school's direct participation in the community's effort develops an ever closer mutual acquaintanceship, friendship, and esteem with its patrons The agricultural projects of the school on the school and the home grounds become matters of community interest and pride. Youth shares with its parents the obligation of producing Red Cross goods, of making model airplanes, of participating in community defense work, in child care, in assisting rationing boards, etc. The awareness of need of conservation gives

impetus to salvage drives, to home and school canning and preserving, to the required economies of home and school materials. All these activities grow in significance as patrons, parents, and high-school personnel team together. Adults who have not crossed the threshold of a school since their own pupil days form the neighborly habit of dropping in to see how this or that project is coming along, offering help and suggestions, and unconsciously becoming supporters and admirers of their children at work and their children's teachers. In such an atmosphere of mutual effort and esteem the adaptation of the instructional program is effected with community approval, for parents realize the necessity of preserving essentials to "all time" needs, and yet of planning for the emergency, and also of anticipating the problems of peace and reconstruction.

The High School Victory Corps urges the secondary schools to organize their classroom offerings and their extraclassroom activities and their personnel program to further the war effort. No matter the size of the school good study habits and habits of neatness, accuracy, self-reliance, and integrity of personal effort can be developed, and all are basic to successful service in the Armed Forces.

The offerings of the English and the social-studies classes can be vitalized in any size of high school by remembering wartime objectives. Patriotism, American idealism, war problems, a positive teaching of the meaning of democracy need no new texts, merely a new emphasis on our history and traditions. An understanding and an appreciation of our allies are essential and the basis for making possible the winning of the peace after the winning of the war offers a fertile field for the potential philosopher and statesman.

According to the schools' equipment, teaching materials, and personnel it would be desirable to introduce preflight courses in aeronautics. This provision might be satisfied—if no more can be done—by thorough courses in mathematics and physics and a pro-

gram of physical fitness In thousands of schools it should be possible to add the study of aircraft structures, aerodynamics, power plants, meteorology, communication, and navigation.

Brigadier General Laurence F. Kuter, Deputy Chief of Staff, United States Army Air Forces, urged competency in studies when he discussed "What the Army Air Forces Need from Education." He said,

> The 125,000 airplane program for 1943 is closely related to an Army Air Force of approximately two million men. Seventy per cent or 1,400,000 of these men must be given military training as technicians. That number is almost half the total number of young men in senior high schools.

Pre-induction training for the armed forces and training for civilian occupations and services also should be provided. The vocational education program can be expanded and redirected, girls must be provided with occupational courses School facilities must be used to the utmost in the preliminary preparation where possible of mechanical and radio specialists, auto and airplane repair men, photographers, nurses, cooks, etc.

Perhaps the greatest concern lies in the fields of mathematics and science, from which technology derives its basic language. More students this year should take these subjects, and more students gain a thorough mastery and ability to transfer the learnings gained to practical situations. The need for high schools to stress training in mathematics and physics was repeated over and over again by representatives from the Army, the Navy, and the Air Forces.

No article on the High School Victory Corps could fail to quote J. W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, the man who envisioned the corps on a national pattern, not necessarily a national organization. His words are challenging.

> We are engaged in a war for survival This is a total war—a war of armies and navies, a war of factories and farms, a war of homes and

schools. Education has an indispensable part to play in total war. Schools must help to teach individuals the issues at stake; to train them for their vital parts in the total war effort, to guide them into conscious personal relationship to the struggle

Daily the realization grows that we are in for a long hard struggle. Facts must be realistically faced Only the dullest sort of wishful thinking could cause any of us to doubt that education too must undertake conversion to the business of total war War is a hard, brutal business It is pain, and heartache, and frustration It means plans deferred and careers interrupted--but it must be faced We are in this war and the only way out is through.

Ethel Percy Andrus, Ph D, is the principal of the Abraham Lincoln High School, Los Angeles, California When the editors of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY asked the United States Office of Education for an article on the High School Victory Corps program, Miss Andrus was nominated to write the article

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THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN

Records disclose that the number of women attending college in the United States has increased more than 125,000 times during the past century It is reported that by 1937 more than 500,000 were so enrolled In 1837 the total number of such collegians was exactly four, enrolled at Oberlin College, and the first women to be admitted to institutions of higher learning in this country

In breaking a precedent for the first time, that year Oberlin College announced that its door has been opened to "Young ladies of good minds, unblemished morals, and respectable attainments" Although none other of the fifty colleges of that day would admit women students, only four registrants responded

Today there are 120 women's colleges and 80 men's colleges Despite the early and continuing opposition to coeducation broken by Oberlin for the first time in 1837, there are now 451 coeducational colleges

THE MORALE NEEDS OF YOUTH*

HARVEY ZORBAUGH

I have selected a text for what I want to say tonight. It consists of Shakespeare's words. "care I for the limb, the thewes, the stature, bulk and big assemblance of a man! Give me the spirit."

It is my conviction, in thinking about the needs of youth, that we have become prone to think too largely of the things that build the "assemblance of a man," too little of the things that determine the "spirit." Perhaps this is an inevitable result of the fact that the problems of youth first challenged our attention on a major scale during our deepest economic depression. Jobs—and the food, clothes, shelter, medical care they made possible—had to be found for youth. But finding them, and taking pride in the way they built "limb, thewes, stature, bulk," we neglected to inquire closely enough as to whether they were sufficient to feed youth's spirit

Pursuing this conviction, I pass over the familiar inventories of the problems and needs of youth—oft repeated, and by those vastly more competent than I to discuss them—and turn directly to a consideration of the spiritual problems and needs of the youth of today.

By "spirit" I mean merely those characteristics of the psyche which determine the person's capacity to stand up to, maintain his integrity under, deal effectively with the inevitable stresses of living, not only as an individual, but also as a member of the community. I feel sure, had Shakespeare been with us today, he would have accepted the word "morale" as equivalent of what he called the "spirit."

It is about the morale of youth I wish to speak this evening—its importance, its problems, its needs But, first, perhaps I should clarify what I mean by morale

We all recognize morale when we see it. At a small dinner in New York, not long ago, the captain of a British cruiser, laid up in

* A paper read before the National Conference on the Family, 1942

Brooklyn Navy Yard for repairs, was telling of his experiences in Crete. The going had been heavy — for days enemy bombers had been constantly diving upon the ship while not a British fighter was to be seen in the sky. They were scouring offshore waters, with a supporting destroyer a mile ahead, when suddenly out of the clouds four dreaded Stukas plummeted down upon them. Perhaps fearing the anti-aircraft guns of the cruiser, they dove straight upon the destroyer.

There was a deafening roar as four heavy bombs exploded almost simultaneously, and the destroyer was obscured by flame, smoke, and spray. The captain ordered full speed to the spot, and watched through his glasses for the oil, wreckage, and men struggling in the sea that he expected to be all that remained of the destroyer. But as the smoke cleared there, though rocking heavily, the destroyer miraculously rode. Then up ran a flag, another and another. The cruiser's captain, expecting word that the destroyer was sinking within minutes, already was ordering his boats manned. A fourth flag ran up the destroyer's yard, and through his glasses the cruiser's captain deciphered the letters P-H F W, phew! That was all and the destroyer steamed off about her business.

We all recognize such behavior as reflecting extraordinary morale. But when we try to define morale we seem to get ourselves into difficulty. *The American Journal of Sociology* and *The Journal of Educational Sociology* both have devoted recent issues to morale. In reading them one encounters nearly as many definitions of morale as there are contributors. But emerging from the lot of them, and coinciding closely with my own conclusions from experience in attempting to reëstablish morale through the clinic, is the idea that morale is fundamentally a conception of oneself as a member of the group.

This fact is well illustrated by the story of another Englishman, this time an explorer, who, in the middle of the last century had

penetrated through the Sudan into North Africa and, with one of his bearer boys, had been separated from the rest of his expedition and captured by native tribesmen. Confined in a hut, he listened for hours to the sounds of drums and powwow as the head men of the village debated his fate. Toward midnight several of them entered the hut and said to him in effect: "You are English. You are Christian (the tribesmen were nominally Mohammedan). Here (presenting him with two twigs crossed and tied with a bit of grass) is your cross. Throw it upon the ground, spit on it, crush it under your heel and you go free. Otherwise you are to die. We give you until dawn to think it over." Then they left the hut.

During the hours that remained to him, the explorer wrote a long letter to an old friend, a letter he smuggled out to the bearer boy who had hung about his hut, and which ultimately reached England. After telling the story of his predicament and the decision he faced, he wrote: "I am making a choice that, even to me, is incredible. I have never thought of myself as a Christian. I only know to desecrate the cross is something no Englishman could do."

Here again we recognize morale. Moreover, we get a glimpse of its essential meaning—a controlling conception of self as a member of the group. "I only know to desecrate the cross is something no Englishman could do!"

Such a controlling conception of self as a member of the group is built, I believe, through a series of identifications fostered by the sense of acceptance and belonging, the sharing of experience and so of goals and values, the feeling of adequacy as a group member that arises out of playing a recognized role within the group

Certainly the clinician finds the failure of such identifications to be achieved or maintained, whatever the reasons for such failure, to be the primary cause of demoralization. The demoralized personalities we see in our clinics and consultation rooms are overwhelmingly characterized by a sense of lack of group support, social

rejection, and isolation; by a confusion over, resistance to, conflict with group values, by a feeling of the inadequacy of the roles they play in the groups of which they are a part

Morale is built and maintained through experiences that facilitate and support identification with the group Not only the experience of clinics but that of juvenile and domestic relations courts, of family service societies, indeed of all our social agencies confirms this fact. Even a cursory survey of what happened to personalities in England during the blitz would indicate that morale was highest in persons whose lives were best integrated with that of the community, that morale was facilitated as persons were drawn by the emergency into closer relationship with one another, that demoralization was far less likely to result from shock than from social dislocation.

I recognize, of course, that, being the sort of organisms we are, physical factors contribute to demoralization --that deprivation of fats, sugars, calcium, vitamin B_1, for example, will undermine morale. But these things will not build morale. Morale is built only in social living.

By morale, then, I mean a controlling conception of oneself as a member of the group—which enables one to stand up to, maintain his integrity under, deal effectively with the stresses of living; a conception that is built and supported by a set of group identifications—the sense of acceptance and belonging, of sharing experience, goods, and values, of playing a recognized role within the group; identifications that are built and maintained only through group experience

It would seem to me to follow that problems of morale, and of demoralization, have their locus in the community's organization of group life, and the individual's experiences within that organization

Turning, now, to the morale of youth today, one might fairly say at the moment that the major problem is to have their morale needs recognized. Our immediate safety depends, of course, upon the success of our military and economic efforts. Discussions of morale

naturally focus upon the morale of the adults who must carry out this effort and their supporting civilian population.

The morale of youth, for the time being, is largely forgotten. When we do consider it, it is negatively—not in terms of how morale may be built, but in terms of how demoralization may be prevented. As witness the discussions of fears aroused in children by the war, and how they may best be dealt with.

Once the first effort of our psychic and social mobilization is organized, however, recognition will be given the morale needs of youth, as happened in England. I need not stress the importance of this recognition. We might well win this war, and yet lose it, if the morale of our youth were forgotten. Youth's morale is the future of the way of life for which we are fighting.

Of the many problems involved in providing youth with a group experience that will build and maintain morale, the most critical, as I see it, arises out of the sharp cleavage between generations (the world of the child and that of the adult) which has grown up in our culture Ultimately, we want morale to rest upon one's conception of oneself as a citizen of the larger community; yet developmental experience in our culture, particularly during the adolescent years, makes identification with the larger community difficult.

Margaret Mead, in her contrast of adolescent experience in Samoa and America, *Coming of Age in Samoa,* has strikingly documented this problem. Dollard has ably analyzed some of its implications in his discussion of "adolescence in America" in his book *Frustration and Aggression.* Every clinic working with adolescents encounters it in a variety of behaviors which, paraphrasing Alfred Adler, one might term "adult protest"—protest against the cultural role of the child

I do not mean to imply that the adolescent has no group experience; but that his groups are to a large extent interstitial with reference to the organization of the life of the community. Many and

real as are the values of the group experiences offered by settlements, Christian associations, Scouts, boys' clubs, and similar "youth" organizations, they are experiences that occupy and enrich the cultural span of childhood, rather than afford the opportunity for a progressive integration and identification of youth with the community of adults.

The same is too largely true of the group experience afforded by the school—where youth is secluded within four walls from the life of the community. We all recall that during the depression we discussed the extension of schooling as a frank measure for occupying the time of youth for whom we could find no place in the life of the community.

This cleavage, I believe, presents the greatest obstacle to the growth and maintenance of morale in our youth today. Certainly it has played a major part in the demoralization of the adolescents we encounter in clinics and courts. Certainly it was a factor in the demoralization of many youth during the depression years. At narrowing this cleavage, any long-time program for the morale of youth should direct a major effort. Much can be accomplished, I believe, through a reorientation of the goals and programs of present youth agencies.

Nor should we forget that the war increases both the need and the opportunity for youth to feel it is part of the community, with a role to play in its life and defense. England early was faced with the necessity of youth's taking over many activities normally considered adult. The original defense program made places for youth down to fifteen years of age. As the war went on, it was found that these youth showed far fewer symptoms of its strain than those of eleven to fourteen. It has been found since that, to the extent significant community activities can be found for this age group, their strain is lessened.

I do not believe this fact is to be explained merely in terms of providing something to do, an outlet for tension. English experience

indicates that, for the majority of persons (and here I am speaking of adults), it is not merely something to do, but something "social" to do, that contributes most to the maintenance of morale. Fundamental, always, for adult and youth, is the role as member of the group.

There are innumerable ways in which, in meeting our own emergency, the living of youth may be integrated more significantly with that of the community. Numerous youth agencies are already reorienting their programs in this direction. But so far as I can discover, they are as yet thinking in terms of what must be done that youth can do, as did also the English to begin with; are but vaguely aware of the meaning of what they are doing in terms of the basic morale needs of youth. The sooner they achieve such awareness, the more effective will be their contribution—both to maintaining youth's morale in this crisis, and building morale for the future.

In closing, I would like to spend a moment on the part of the family in building and maintaining the morale of youth, with particular reference to the impact of the war

One need not stress before this audience the vital part that the family plays. It is within the family that the first of the series of group identifications out of which morale is built takes place. If this primary identification fails, later group identifications are more difficult; if it succeeds, later group identifications are vastly facilitated. Indeed, it is not infrequent to find morale resting largely upon one's conception of oneself as a member of the family group.

Edmond Taylor, author of *The Strategy of Terror,* tells of a gallant young French pilot's explanation of his courage. The young Frenchman said: "I am not a brave man, but I have a brave name. Every time I go up I am scared to death, but I have to go because my name is 'de Blanc'. If it were Dupont I would not fight. All the officers in my group have names that unscrew in the middle and that is why they are all brave."

Sometimes I wonder whether, as we work clinically with chil-

dren, we might not get farther if we spent a bit less time in attempting to manipulate relationships, a little more time in trying to improve the status of the family in the community, so that more children might, in effect, say, "I have a brave name."

The part played by the family role in building and maintaining youth's morale is doubly important in our and other western cultures, because of the cleavage of generations we have seen to be characteristic of these cultures. The family must, as best it may, bridge the gap left by a lack of transitional group experiences

The stresses created within the family group by total war are already apparent in any considerable sampling of families, such as the case-load of our university clinic There has already been too little sharing of group experience in a majority of these families; in many of them it has dropped to a hazardous minimum in the past six months as both fathers and mothers spend less and less time within the home. As the familiar, supporting pattern of family living is increasingly disrupted in these families, not only young children but adolescents show symptoms of a decreased security

There is a credit as well as a debit side to the picture, however. A surprising number of more or less demoralized fathers and mothers, achieving a new sense of the significance of their roles in the community, have shown a heightening of morale which seems appreciably to have improved the morale of their children.

But the credits do not balance the debits The impact of this war upon family life is beyond doubt a threat to the morale of youth, a threat that all agencies concerned with the family must cooperate to counteract.

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RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL *may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology.*

EVALUATION OF A PROGRAM OF CITIZEN TRAINING: A STUDY OF THE EIGHTH GRADES OF THE SECOND SUPERVISORY DISTRICT OF NASSAU COUNTY, NEW YORK[1]

During the school year of 1941–1942 an evaluation program was conducted in seven suburban school systems of southern Nassau County, New York. The procedures involved were partially based on the techniques used by Howard E. Wilson[2] in his survey of citizenship education in New York State schools in general. Consequently, the study of the Nassau County schools presents comparisons with and contrasts to the results which Wilson reported for the State as a whole.

The Nassau County project as conducted by Arthur R. Olsen utilized several research techniques Reading research was employed: first, to determine the national and State policies which form the basis of education for citizenship; second, to show the shifting of emphasis from factual to participating learning; and, third, to report the derivation of testing and evaluative materials related to civic competence An experimental testing procedure was used to analyze areas of civic competence, *i.e.*, factual information, social concepts, attitudes, beliefs, and social skills. Finally, a questionnaire method was applied to determine the extent to which pupils utilize community resources and the relationship of such resources to the school citizenship program.

Conclusions drawn from the study are divided into two headings One concerns certain evidences of civic competence associated with schoolwork The other concerns evidences of civic competence in community

[1] A R Olsen, An Evaluation of a Program of Citizenship Education—A Study of the Eighth Grades of the Second Supervisory District of Nassau County, New York New York New York University, 1942 (unpublished Ed D document)

[2] H E Wilson, *Education for Citizenship* (New York McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938)

activities. In the former groups, it would appear that for these schools girls are superior to boys in mastery of factual knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, and skill abilities of map, chart, and graph interpretations. Boys in the same schools at the eighth grade level have achieved a greater number of social concepts than girls. Both sexes evidenced liberal attitudes in regard to their relationship with fellow students; but less than fifty per cent of either sex would permit newspaper publication of criticism of the government.

In the sociological area of the study, pupils showed wide usage of community resources, this was evidenced by the extent and quality of their interests in radio programs, newspapers, book readings, motion pictures, and club activities. There is also evidence that pupils relate such activities and resources to schoolwork and school life. Of great significance was the fact that pupils who participated widely in club activities were more liberal in their expression of attitudes; conversely, pupils who were indifferent to club activities were less liberal in their expression of attitudes and beliefs.

The study has been submitted as a report to the schools in the area as a basis for further study of their school programs and will serve as a basis for revision of existing courses of study which supplement citizen education.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY FILM LIBRARY

Films on child care available to educational and parent groups

In a time of war, when homes are disrupted because fathers are leaving to serve in the armed forces, and mothers are taking their places in the factories, the urgent need for trained workers to plan and care for the nation's children become daily more apparent.

"Children are the only future a nation has." We cannot ignore this challenge.

To aid all interested teachers and civilian defense leaders in programs of child care and education in schools and community centers, New York University Film Library offers the following films which have in common a concern with the development and care of young children.

A Child Went Forth. Because it effectively highlights a nursery camp situation and shows one way to solve the problem of our children in wartime should evacuation of our cities become necessary

(2 reels, sound. Rental 1 day, $3.00. Sale, $72.00)

Balloons. Aggression and destruction games

Finger Painting. The use of plastic materials by young children.

Frustration Play Techniques. Because these films, the first in a series produced by the Department of Child Study at Vassar College, are studies of normal personality development in young children, and demonstrate special techniques in the diagnosis of normal personality

Balloons. (2 reels, sound Rental 1 day, $3 00. Sale, $60 00)

Finger Painting (2 reels, color, silent. Rental 1 day, $6.00. Sale, $125.00)

Frustration Play Techniques. (3½ reels, sound. Rental 1 day, $4.00. Sale, $80.00)

Five and Under. Because it shows how Great Britain has attempted to meet the emergency wartime needs of her very young children in nursery schools, day nurseries, and resident nurseries. England's experience will help us in the establishment and maintenance of our own child care centers.

(2 reels, sound Rental 1 day, $3.00 Sale, $30 00)

Village School. Because it deals with the problems faced by a rural school teacher in England when city children are evacuated to her community. Her efforts to maintain the physical and mental health of the children under her care will be suggestive and useful to teachers.

(1 reel, sound. Rental 1 day, $1 50. Sale, $15 00)

Tomorrow Is Theirs. Because it deals with the adaptation of England's high-school programs to present war problems without lowering academic standards. High-school age boys make the adjustment to evacuation quarters—an interesting and educative experience.

(1 reel, sound. Rental 1 day, $1 50. Sale, $15 00)

Children from Overseas. Because this film shows English children evacuated to Canada in the early days of the war, and underscores some of the adjustments involved in the transfer to new homes and different ways of living.

(1 reel, sound. Rental 1 day, $1.50. Sale, $15 00)

Mother and Child. Because it emphasizes the importance of the coordination of medical and social services which England is maintaining in wartime for expectant mothers, infants, and preschool children.

(1 reel, sound. Rental 1 day, $1.50. Sale, $15 00)

Life Begins. Because this film offers a unique opportunity to study a normal infant's mental and physical development from birth to 18 months, making specific comparative studies of the various stages of growth. This is an overall view of Dr Gesell's work at the Yale Clinic of Child Development.

(6 reels, sound. Rental 1 day, $10.00)

And So They Live

The Children Must Learn

Because they emphasize the need for a more functional type of education in our schools by dramatizing the gap which exists in many areas (in this case the rural South) between the school curriculum and the social and economic conditions under which children live. Of interest not only for the educational implications, but also as documentary studies of nutritional deficiencies.

And So They Live. (3 reels, sound Rental 1 day, $4.00; 1-year lease, $40.00; 3-year lease, $80 00)

The Children Must Learn. (2 reels, sound. Rental 1 day, $3.00; 1-year lease, $30.00; 3-year lease $60.00)

For Health and Happiness Because this film offers a positive picture of the simple health and dietary practices which help to build healthy, happy young people.
(1 reel, color, sound. Rental 1 day, $3.00)

These films are all 16 millimeter. For information on rental or purchase, address New York University Film Library, New York City.

BOOK REVIEWS

Resources for Victory, by JOHN E. ORCHARD. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942, 36 pages.

Professor Orchard's field of specialization is economic geography, and his contribution to the Columbia Home Front War-Books is this pamphlet on economic resources directed to the consumer. Each of the strategic war materials steel, copper, aluminum, foods, rubber, etc., is analyzed in order to show the problems which it engenders for the United Nations, the comparative position of the Axis, and the implications for noncombatant Americans. The material of the booklet is well organized, and succinctly presented in a tempered, nonhysterical tone.

The Strength of Nations, by GEORGE SOULE. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942, 268 pages.

The best single statement of the theme of the book is found on page 199, in the opening paragraph of Chapter IX: "Our chief hope for the avoidance of such disasters as depression and war, and the achievement of positive ends made possible by material progress, lies not in improvised or quack doctrines, not in the promises of new messiahs, and not in religious revivalism, but in a better application of scientific method to an understanding of man and society."

Mr. Soule's effort is a heartening one. To those working in some one of the fields of scientific or social discipline, the danger is a loss of perspective and so of proportion. The workers in special fields work to push back the frontiers of their separate areas, with little effort to coördinate their achievements with the developments in other fields *The Strength of Nations* is an attempt at synthesis, a thing urgently needed at intervals of increasing frequency. It attempts to answer the question: What have the natural, physical, and social sciences to offer for the solution of social problems? No claim is made that this is the final summary, but the book does make a very satisfactory progress report.

An Appraisal of the Protocols of Zion, by JOHN S CURTISS. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942, x + 106 pages.

Since 1963 anti-Semites have been using Protocols of Zion, the supposed Jewish conspiracy for world domination, to poison minds and spread race prejudice and hatred throughout the world.

The author, a descendent of an Anglo-Saxon family "that has been in America since the early Colonial days," has given us the final word on the "Protocols" As a linguist and scholar, Curtiss carefully checked all evidence written in many languages and proves, beyond any possible question, that the original book *Dialogues in Hell* by an obscure French journalist Maurice Joly, and the elaborations that have been worded into it by anti-Semites, fascists, and Nazi leaders, are deliberate and transparent forgeries. Joly, himself, had no interest in the Jews and wrote his monologue to discredit Napoleon the third's Second Empire.

Gullible sympathetic ears to bigotry and prejudice may benefit from the reply given by Serge Nilus, chief plagiarist and falsifier, who, when approached by the French Count Du Chayla for accepting the Protocols so implicitly, stated: "You know my favorite citation from St Paul is 'The will of God is accomplished through human weakness' The Protocols are false, but is it not possible that God should make use of them in order to expose the iniquity that is already approaching? Did not the Ass of Balaam utter prophecy? For the sake of our faith God can transfer the bones of the dog into sacred relics; He can also make the announcement of truth come out of the mouth of a liar" (p. 71).

Dr. Curtiss, with approval of many scholars of Columbia University, has rendered a great service to the cause of truth and justice in publishing this objective study of sources and authentication.

The Guilt of the German Army, by HANS ERNEST FRILD. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942, xi + 426 pages.

In this volume, as its title indicates, the author tries to show the extent to which the German professional army of the first World War identified itself with the National Socialist movement. The evidence which he methodically assembles points to a close association between the disbanded officers of the earlier struggle and the sponsors of National Socialism. He traces the history of militarism throughout the period from 1918 to its present manifestations, pointing out how much more serious and menacing it has come to be. It is the old Prussianism of the First World War, but much more firmly entrenched in the German state. The introduction (pp. 1–16) sets the stage for his treatment of his theme in characterizing the period under review as "The Great Paradox: Militarism in an Era of Pacificism." Part I is devoted to "The Militarist Roots of National Socialism"; Part II describes the activities of "The Professional Officers after the War"; Part III is designated "The Shock Trooper and the Free Corps"; and Part IV poses the question, What is Militarism? In Part V, "The Nihilization of Military Qualities," he demonstrates the baneful effects of the new militarism on its exponents, devoting an entire chapter to Captain Roehm as an exemplar of "the decline of the code of the German officers." Part VI, "National Socialist Militarism," represents his final conclusions. In a series of chapters he indicates clearly the role played by the professional officer, the shock trooper, and the citizen soldier. "The particular new type of German militarism—is the soul of National Socialism; and . . . National Socialism has become the soul of German militarism." In the Epilogue the author warns the United Nations against the mistakes of 1918. "A victory of the United Nations will not be an automatic guarantee of salvation. The ultimate outcome will rest upon what is done after National Socialist militarism has been overcome on the battlefield."

The Political Scientist and National Service in Wartime, Report of the Committee on Wartime Services of the American Political Science Association. Foreword by WILLIAM ANDERSON. Washington, D. C. American Council on Public Affairs, n. d.

This is the report of a Committee appointed in December 1941 in response to a resolution of the Association adopted at its annual meeting.

It was made after consultation "with persons in other disciplines" The report covers possibilities of service in research, in administrative and executive work, in an advisory capacity, and in organizing work, merely mentioning employment in State and local public service It points out the difficulties of actual employment in the Federal service but recommends the more general utilization of political scientists for the study of such aspects of our present government as the formation of public opinion and public attitudes, the behavior of local rationing boards, and public attitudes toward administration of price regulation. It urges the pursuit by the association members of needed research irrespective of the possibility of such research being sponsored by government authority It directs attention to the possible in-service training of government employees through its members and emphasizes especially the importance of the political scientist's classroom "There is need now that he enlarge his audience" (p. 14). A pessimistic note runs through the report in pointing out how little the political scientist has been sought out as compared with the economist, and implies, if it does not actually urge, that members of the guild might identify themselves more closely with public affairs and garner some practical experience which would make themselves more acceptable in the public service.

Victory Over Fear, by JOHN DOLLARD. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, Inc., 1942, 213 pp.

The author of this popularly written book has had long experience in studying human beings and their fears at the Institute of Human Relations, Yale University. The materials in this volume are accumulated to aid individuals in conquering their fears. The reader is warned, however, that the content will function only in case the reader has a dynamic want for such help.

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EDITORIAL

Again we face a new year with thoughts concentrated on winning the war, and winning the peace which must follow We are aware that the measure of our leadership is being taken. We are determined to keep informed on the larger issues of the war and to be increasingly skillful in organizing all of our facilities for realistic educational service to children, youth, and adults

Our will to win the war is universal Individuals and families are eager to do their part The role of education is to help them see more clearly how they can participate effectively without the sacrifice of values that are held fundamental in a democracy. Participation must be based on understanding the significance of each individual's actions in the outcome of the war, willingness to make sacrifices, and determination to develop and use new skills toward that end.

The articles in this issue present addresses and excerpts from discussions that were part of the program at a Professional Conference sponsored by the Department of Home Economics of the School of Education, New York University, November 13 and 14 The Conference themes were: "The Significance of the Home Front in the War Economy" and "Essential Backgrounds for Consumer Education."

The first article by Dr. Mary S. Fisher on "Safeguarding Family

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Values" calls special attention to the emotional strains that families are experiencing because of the war, and to their need for continued belief in the importance of well-managed homes where democratic values are lived and learned day by day. We must deal realistically with the specifics of economic adjustments in educational programs if we are to convince people that they must buy less, stop installment buying, pay debts, make consumer goods last longer, and invest to the limit of their ability in war stamps and bonds; but, as Dr. Fisher points out, we must also be sensitive to, and, whenever possible, deal with emotional needs and problems of morale that may interfere with or prevent wholehearted attention to the practical aspects of living.

Dr. A. H. Feller and Dr. Homer Anderson discuss national economic programs that our Government is trying to effect for our protection and along with Dr. William Brown challenge educators to interpret these programs to children, young people, and adults in ways that will spur them on to immediate cooperative effort. Mr. Roger Wolcott is convincing in urging joint endeavor on the part of retailers and consumers. Dr. Josephine Kremer makes practical suggestions about procedures that will facilitate financial adjustments, and Miss Clyde B. Schuman brings us face to face with major problems on the nutrition front.

Consumer education that will function dynamically in the mobilization of all of our people to do their part in winning the war will require concerted action in schools and communities. This action must be planned cooperatively on a community-wide basis and must provide for the best possible use of school and community resources. It is toward this end that this issue of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY is dedicated.

DORA S. LEWIS

SAFEGUARDING FAMILY VALUES

MARY S. FISHER

Professor of Child Study, Vassar College; Director, Vassar Summer Institute for Family and Child Care Services in Wartime

War both strengthens and depletes the family. It temporarily increases the strength of family ties, the need for family ties, and, at the same time, produces the social conditions which make it difficult to develop and sustain family relationships and to safeguard family values. The certain knowledge that the future is unpredictable compels even ordinarily cautious young men and women to decide to marry younger and on shorter acquaintance than would have been considered possible before the crisis of war was upon us. Waiting until professional or business training has been completed, until economic security is assured, until there is emotional readiness to settle down to family life and assume responsibility, until obligations to parents have been met, or until parents are satisfied with the choice of husband or wife—all of these reasons which are given for postponing marriage in normal times are no longer relevant

These psychological and social consequences of war mean that many new families are started and many more babies are born in the first years of marriage than is to be expected in times of peace, or even in periods of greatest prosperity. Women particularly want children during war Many women who have postponed starting or completing their families want a first child, or another child, when war threatens their lives. Faced with the possibility that their husbands may be called to military service, may not even come back, women want children to keep the relationships close and real, to give them something important to do and create during the loneliness or emptiness of separation. Even the opportunity or the need to enter defense work, and to make important contributions to the manpower shortage, do not take the place of, or satisfy, the need to bear children This normal intensification of desire for marriage

and children during war is obviously a necessary and important social and individual response to the threat which war implies. If families are to survive and if the continuity of the present into the future is to be preserved through the next generation, there must be more children born in war years. But war marriages and war babies create, as well as solve, population problems. Just as there are more homes established and more babies born, there will inevitably be more homes broken and more children who will need supplementary care and protection. The present and future needs of these children must be anticipated and planned for during the war and in the years to come.

It is in just this area where questions of survival and emotional needs are at stake that we come closest to the essential meaning of family life and its basic values. It is the family, in the last analysis, which keeps alive for each national, racial, or cultural group the way of life that has been developed and perfected through the generations—the way of life that expresses the values and the goals of the particular group. In other words, the family at any particular period of time belongs to the future as well as the past; it is the proving ground where changes are made in old ways to fit children to meet new ways and still keep the values clear.

It is possible to conceive of a form of society without families—a society in which all children are taken at birth from the mothers, kept from knowledge of or association with the fathers, and brought up in state nurseries which assume complete responsibility for their education and training to serve its particular purposes. It is not possible, however, even to think of democracy in terms of any such method of bringing up new generations. Fascists and Nazis can be—and to a certain extent are—produced or developed in just this way by states that deny the right of families to bring up children in their own faiths, states that deny the worth of the individual except as he belongs to the state and is trained blindly to follow its will.

A democracy, in sharp contrast, affirms the value of the individ-

ual, his right to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." These things cannot be taught by mass care or mass teaching. Democratic values must be *lived* and learned, day by day, from living with people who live that way. Therefore, a democracy must depend upon its families to bring up their children as free and responsible individuals who can keep alive faith in a democratic way of life because it has become part of them. The fact that no society has yet been truly democratic, or has yet been able to work out the social and economic conditions which make equality of opportunity possible—upon which the right to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness" must depend—does not deny the validity of the democratic hope or the potential strength of the democratic faith. Even the fact that no democratic society has yet been able to bring up more than a proportion of its children in any generation as free and responsible individuals does not mean that children cannot be brought up to be just that. Yet the fact that democracy has not yet permeated our homes far enough and deep enough to produce a majority of truly democratic personalities presents a more serious threat to our way of life than do our enemies. Waging war is always easier than working out the problems of peace; but war does not protect any society from the dangers that come from denying to its own people those things it fights to preserve.

For this reason it is urgent for all of us to remember the concrete ways in which war depletes and threatens individual families and interferes with their basic contribution to society. Many of the babies born between 1941 and the end of the war will spend their first and most formative years without fathers, without full-time mothers, and under a great variety of emergency conditions. Many of these conditions will seriously limit the possibility of sound and normal personality development. Even those babies born of established marriages, or to war marriages that will prove to be permanent and real in the best sense of the word, will go through the most crucial period of life under social conditions, or in social environments,

that have never existed before. Even the most stable homes have responsibilities toward children which have been increased by the fact of total and global war and these are still largely unrecognized.

In the midst of war tempo, war hours, war separations, war rationing, and war living, children are still learning twenty-four hours a day what democracy means, what democracy is fighting for, and whether democracy means what it says. The fact that we are too busy, too rushed, too preoccupied with winning the war to remember that our future depends upon the personalities of children growing up during war will not save our values for us. The time to save democracy is while the *foundations* are being laid, not after the building has been erected and has fallen into ruins or has shown its structural weaknesses.

These children, who are born into a war world or who will finish growing up in a war world, will learn—in the only way in which children can learn—from the adults who care for them, who live with them, who teach them. These war children of ours will build into themselves the tensions, the fears, the hates, the courage, the patience, the anxiety, the hopes, and the faith of their families, or those who care for them. In our culture women have always had the most to do with the care and training of children, both in homes and schools. But, in normal times, fathers have been an important part of the family picture and have exerted a steadying, balancing, and realistic influence. Now, in wartime more and more fathers are away from home, more and more men are too busy to spend time with children, and the dislocation, at best, is serious If we do not see the implications of bringing up little children without the daily influence of men and consciously take steps to balance children's needs for men as well as women, the results may be felt for many generations. Here is a problem basic to the survival of our democracy with which the Man Power Division of the War Production Board must reckon. In an embattled democracy men are needed in schools, social work, recreation, and in community services just

as desperately as they are needed on the war fronts and in the defense factories. For their sakes, as well as for the sake of community morale, such essential war workers should be drafted and entitled to wear honored insignia which state that they are carrying on essential war services.

We can only hope that it will not take an actual invasion to make us aware of the real dangers which threaten our democracy from within. If an invasion *is* necessary to make us aware of internal dangers, then it may already be too late to safeguard the present generation of American children. This means quite literally that the future of our democracy must depend on the kinds of children being shaped in our homes and schools during the war. Unfortunately for our future it is very easy to bring up passive, regimented children who very early learn to feel safe only when they are controlled and manipulated, only when they are told what to do and when. This danger of regimentation is already apparent in the increasing number of people who cry, "What we need is more discipline," and who seem to mean by discipline being docile, being passive, being without initiative. Of course, children who do not use their minds to question, to ask "Why?" to try to understand the world around them are easier to take care of in times of crisis, are easier to regiment into groups. Children who become passive and institutionalized early in life—in homes, schools, or day-care centers—will never grow up to threaten adults with new ideas, new ways of solving old problems which must be worked out in the reconstruction period ahead. Such children will never grow up to ask, for example, why our society gets so excited about delinquency when it still protects the economic and social institutions that make delinquency inevitable. Passive, regimented children may be considered, mistakenly, to be well disciplined, but they are disciplined for antidemocratic values and ways of life Such children cannot love freedom and be strong enough spiritually and emotionally to safeguard democracy.

In addition to bringing up passive and regimented children in

times of war, it is also easy to bring up many groups who believe—because their experiences teach them this belief—that democracy really means privilege for the fortunate behind the beautiful front of words of the Bill of Rights and the Christian religion. Many of these children will grow into adults who will fight, and fight bitterly, in the name of democracy all attempts to make equality of opportunity a reality instead of a symbol. Our democracy will be preparing for its own destruction to the extent to which it develops such personalities. It is also easy at all times, but easier in times of war when we are preoccupied with immediate, pressing problems, to bring up a generation of children who learn that being adult means doing things *to* people, getting one's own way, competing for power, putting something over on somebody, being suspicious of any one of a different color, religion, class, occupation, or profession.

Children brought up in such beliefs will be unable psychologically to learn the urgent lesson of total war—that until all groups and nations have their human birthright of freedom and dignity no group or nation can be safe to develop its own gifts, abilities, and resources. If, in the midst of war, we bring up enough children in our homes and schools who cannot learn the truths being made so tragically clear, we are setting the world stage now for a second global war within their lifetime.

The family values we seek to safeguard in time of war are basically democratic values—values that keep alive man's faith in man, in his capacity to become creative, free, and responsible. These values can be safeguarded best in individual families where children are valued and respected, where children live with adults who are steady, disciplined, friendly, sympathetic, and tolerant. Knowing what children need basically ought to help us become more aware of our goals and less concerned about methods—not that methods are not important if we are clear as to goals or values. Much of the current unduly excited discussion about whether mothers of young children should or should not work outside the home misses the

essential point of children's basic needs Many women in our culture do not take actual physical care of their own children but hire maids or nurses who may or may not be suitable in terms of children's developmental needs. Now that maids and nurses are harder to get, more and more women need help in learning how to understand and live comfortably with their own children. Nursery schools and day-care centers may literally be the salvation of such mothers and children, and as essential to our future welfare as providing care for children of mothers who must work for economic reasons. Just being at home with his mother does not guarantee to any child that he will be living with an adult who understands the ways and needs of growth, an adult who is capable of the patience, sympathy, and friendliness little children need.

In sheer self-defense our country cannot afford too many children who grow up defensive and hostile because they have been deprived, or insecure and dependent because they have been overprotected. Yet we can and will make more and more children essentially passive, defensive, or overdependent until we recreate our social and educational institutions to meet the new conditions of war and to correct existing conditions revealed as dangerously inadequate in the light of war. Even in normal times, and even for the most fortunate, peaceful and well-disciplined homes where both freedom and fairness exist are difficult to create and maintain Yet it is just such homes that we must help parents create in the face of war and under the varied conditions which war creates. Everything that can be done to help parents learn how to live with and care for their children so that they are not emotionally and psychologically deprived must be done, and done quickly.

Being Americans, and being essentially a moral, courageous, and resourceful people, we can do what needs to be done— once we see the problem It is such groups as this who are professionally as well as well as personally concerned with family life and family values that must assume leadership and own the heaviest obligation.

THE NATIONAL ECONOMIC POLICY AND THE CONTROL OF INFLATION

A. H. FULLER

Deputy Director, Office of War Information

You will remember that although the matter of price control had been under debate through many months of 1941, the full realization of the peril which we faced in a looming inflation came to the country in April of 1942. It was then estimated that the national consumer income for 1942 would be 117 billion dollars. Taxes and savings were estimated to take 31 billions off this. This would leave 86 billions of spendable money in the hands of our people. At the same time, it appeared that the total available goods and services for civilians in that year would amount to only 69 billion dollars. The pressure of rising consumer income against a shrinking supply of consumer goods could have only one result—a skyrocketing of prices and the beginning of an inflationary race. Nor was this a mere theoretical threat—already the cost of living had risen 15 per cent since January 1, 1941. A program of drastic action was needed, and on April 27, the President laid it out for us in his famous seven points. He told us then that we must:

1. Tax heavily and hold profits down
2. Fix ceilings on prices and rents
3. Stabilize wages
4. Stabilize farm prices
5. Put more billions into war bonds
6. Ration all essential commodities which are scarce
7. Discourage installment buying, and encourage the paying off of debts and mortgages

Several of these points were implemented almost immediately—a general price ceiling was placed on almost all commodities which could be controlled under the law; regulations designed to discourage installment buying were put into effect, the Treasury

expanded its efforts for the sale of war bonds. But some of the most important things were not done. Many weary months dragged by without the passage of an adequate tax bill or of legislation to enable the control of farm prices A wage-stabilization policy was slowly fashioned, but the authority of the War Labor Board extended only to wage increases that were involved in labor disputes

Throughout the summer months it became clearer and clearer that the policy could not succeed unless each of its component parts was successful, that the seven points are as intertwined and interrelated as the strands of a rope; and that, like the rope, the strength of the policy as a whole depends on the strength of each of its strands.

Food prices were going up and up. By mid-July uncontrolled foods advanced 7.3 per cent, although the price of foods controlled by the OPA actually fell 7/10 of 1 per cent. Here is another way to measure the rise: The food for which the average family paid $1.00 in the summer of 1939 cost $1.11 in the spring of 1941. In the spring of 1942 it cost $1.30. By the summer it was up to $1.35. (By the beginning of October uncontrolled foods had gone up 16.8 per cent above the May level, and the food cost index stood at 129 6 per cent of the 1935–1939 average, the highest point since May 1930.)

You will remember that in his Labor Day speech the President, likening this situation to the peril of invasion by the enemy, called on Congress for action by October 1 The action was forthcoming, even though some bitter words and considerable legislative maneuvering intervened. Hard on the heels of this Congressional action, the President appointed Mr Justice Byrnes to head an Office of Economic Stabilization, price ceilings were placed on many food items, nearly all rents were brought under rent ceilings, wages and salaries were stabilized, and a $25,000 net income limitation was placed on salaries.

All this is now history, and you may wonder why it is necessary to retell it now For one thing, because despite the disheartening

overtones of bickering and pressure-group activity which run through it, the story on the whole is a pretty encouraging one. Here democracy showed that it really could function for the general good, even though private interest of powerful groups needed to be curbed. But there is another reason for telling this now familiar tale—there is grave danger that the keen awareness we had during those days of debate may be succeeded by complacency, which can be as dangerous on the economic as on the fighting front. One can already sense a disposition to stop worrying; the Government has taken care of everything. Can we stop worrying about inflation? Most certainly not.

All these governmental measures will hold prices down to a certain extent. No doubt of that. But the inflationary gap between consumer income and the amount of goods consumers can buy has not disappeared. Next year the supply of civilian commodities will get smaller and smaller, but total consumer income is bound to rise. How, you ask, can this happen when wages are stabilized? The reason is that, while general wage rates will not increase very much, a good many new workers will be added to the working population, particularly women and young people. Moreover, the work-week will doubtless increase, which will mean that each worker will have a bigger pay check. Finally, upgrading and promotions of lower paid workers, and continued shift of workers from low-paying civilian consumer industries to high-paying war industries will gradually raise the total wage bill of the country. If these things come to pass, as they almost certainly must, the pressure against price ceilings will be renewed, and we may be off once again to the inflationary race

There are only a few weapons left in the governmental arsenal to fight such an eventuality. An actual forced reduction of wages and prices can be ruled out as both undesirable and practically impossible. Three things can still be done:

1. Still heavier taxes, particularly a spending tax as suggested by the Treasury

2 Compulsory savings

3. Universal rationing of all commodities

4 A vigorous program to standardize and simplify production and distribution

Whether any or all of these will be done it would be rash to prophesy. The important thing now is not what the Government can or will do, but what we, the people, can and will do. The real job of avoiding inflation has been given to us *We* have been given the assignment of putting all we can into War Bonds, of paying off our debts. *We* will have to pay the heavier taxes, forego increases in the prices of things we sell or in the wages we receive It is not enough merely to suffer these things to be done unto us—to take the tax blank or the ration card with only a muted grumble. The heavier tax or war-bond payment, the foregone wage or price increase, or dividend check, the surrendered Sunday pleasure ride, are *our* positive contributions. It is up to us not merely to accept the sacrifices which are ordered, but to offer a greater sacrifice and to expect its acceptance by Government, as does the aviator or soldier who volunteers for the most dangerous of missions

It is we also who are the buyers of that rapidly shrinking supply of civilian goods One of our assigned tasks in the fighting of the war is to do without things to which we are accustomed. Foregoing a new suit or pair of shoes, making old things do, conserving existing clothes and household equipment may not seem a particularly glamorous way of participating in the war, but it is an essential part of it The less we buy, not only the more for our fighting men, but the less the danger of runaway inflation It was once said that they also serve who only stand and wait In this war standing and waiting is not enough, but it must be said again and again that they also fight who do not buy unessential things

Here then are the things we must do·

Our daily lives must be organized on the basis of rigid self-denial Our living standards must be reduced, and on our own responsi-

bility. We cannot wait for Government edicts forbidding or regulating the use of each and every article.

We must buy less. Each article we have must last longer. Just as the machine tools in the factories which once worked eight hours in a day now must work twenty-four, so the suit which once would have been destined for a year's wear must now last two or three. Those consumers who are tempted to rush out now and buy clothing and shoes had best remember that by this time next year we will all think it smart to be shabby. Whatever we buy must be paid for in cash whenever possible. Installment buying is inflationary.

We must learn the ceiling prices under the OPA regulations and refuse to pay more. We should refuse to deal with black-market operators and price violators. The meager, temporary advantage of getting a little more than our fair share may mean the collapse of our national effort if multiplied by a million cases of violation.

Investment to the limit of our abilities in war bonds is a solemn duty to the Nation.

Ready and willing acceptance of the stabilization of our positions is as necessary as the acceptance of the post of danger by the soldier —low, reasonable profits for the business men, no higher-than-parity prices for the farmers, no general wage increases for the wage earners.

All of this means sacrifice, perhaps even privation Some of our most essential commodities—coffee, meat, fuel oil—are already under rationing or soon will be. Other scarcities are bound to develop. Now is the time for the self-discipline which is our people's greatest strength. In particular, it is a time of great opportunity for the consumer and the consumer movement The fight for simplicity, for standardization, for reasonable prices was tough and thankless in the piping days of peace. The consumer movement has learned the techniques of public education Now it can put its hard-won knowledge into the service of the Nation It is aiding valiantly in the field

of price control. It can fortify its endeavors by fighting just as hard for the other elements in our national economic policy.

The terrible experience of the German inflation after the last war will never occur in this country. Of this we can be sure. We know also that the Government has undertaken to guarantee the minimum essentials of living to the people. But the experience of our own inflation in the last war can easily happen here again. During that period the cost of living rose to such stratospheric heights that it rocked the economic stability of the Nation.

Between the summer of 1914 and the time that the Armistice was signed in 1918, the cost of American living soared 63 per cent. By June 1920, it was up more than 100 per cent over 1914. Housewives were paying $2.67 for ten pounds of sugar, $.88 for ten pounds of flour, $.67 for a pound of butter. Eggs rose from $ 25 a dozen in 1914 to $ 92 in December of 1920.

But when these fancy prices dropped, they went down like a dive bomber. Between May 1920 and May 1921, farm prices tumbled 54 per cent. Other prices fell 25 per cent in five months. Hundreds of thousands of farmers lost their lands, homes, and savings. Five million workers lost their jobs The total amount of bankruptcy was almost twice that of any previous year in American history.

When it was all over, we found that the skyrocket ride of wartime prices had contributed 13½ billions to the total 31 billion dollar price we paid for the last war.

A similar tragedy in this war—when we are at the present time already committed to an expenditure of more than 240 billions—would add as much as 100 billions to the load.

The measures which the Government has taken can prevent this from occurring again, if the people will do their part. We know now that inflation can be controlled. In the five months from May 12 to October 13 the price of foods controlled by the OPA only went up 4/10 of 1 per cent as compared with a 16 per cent rise in uncon-

trolled foods. And this remarkable record was achieved despite the inflationary factors which were in evidence throughout that period. We know we can do it if we have the will to do it; if we are willing to make the sacrifices which the endeavor requires.

Though it be trite to say it, I ask you again to consider the triviality of these sacrifices we are called upon to make beside those given by our men at the front or by the citizens of London and Canterbury, of Moscow and Stalingrad. In the battle against inflation we fight not only for ourselves but for our brothers and sons in the armed services who have a right to expect us to provide for them a decent economic order on their return. We who remain at home have this as our ultimate privilege—to provide the foundation for the victory in peace which they are protecting by force of arms. Here lies the great challenge to the American people.

RECENT SOURCE MATERIALS*

United States Office of Education

Some Principles of Consumer Education at the Secondary Level A report of a conference on consumer education Price 10 cents.

Manual on Wartime Consumer Education for Use in Elementary and Secondary Schools. Prepared by representatives from the following divisions of the Office of Education, who make up the Working Staff on Consumer Education. Home Economics Education Service, Agriculture Education Service, Business Education and School Administration.

This staff is giving attention to the question of the school's responsibility for a program of Consumer Education planned as a functioning part of our nation's program Thirteen Federal agencies have appointed one or more representatives each to serve with the Working Staff, in a united effort to coördinate the educational program of the different agencies relating to consumer problems in which the schools are being called upon to share. The Office of Education staff and these representatives meet from time to time as an Inter-agency Cooperative Committee on Consumer Education.

* Order from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D C

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE HOME FRONT IN THE WAR SAVINGS PROGRAM

HOMER W. ANDERSON

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We are engaged in total war with the most unscrupulous and cruel enemies the world has ever seen. They are cunning, crafty, and intelligent as well as cruel. For years they have prepared for this conflict while the democracies pursued their normal modes of life with characteristic equanimity. The democracies started preparations for defense only on the eve of the attack by the enemy. They were, therefore, not fully prepared for war with an enemy schooled in mechanized methods of war.

After a year in the war our nation has demonstrated amazing progress. Millions of men have been armed, trained in mechanized war, and now are stationed on countless battle fronts. Airplanes are coming off the assembly lines in unprecedented numbers and being flown to all parts of the world. Tanks, ammunition, and other war materials are being produced at rates that can be achieved only by a great industrial nation. Peacetime industries have been transformed in a few weeks into manufactories of the implements of war. Phenomenal expansion of plant capacity has been brought about. Changes have been made that were thought impossible of achievement. Yet they have been made. Industries and American workers have demonstrated that democracy, though it loves peace, can mobilize for war effectively and efficiently

Despite these remarkable achievements, we as American citizens have no right to be complacent. We are still at war—total war—with dangerous enemies lurking in distant lands. As long as they have the cunning, strength, and vitality they have already demonstrated, we have no easy victory in sight In fact, I am sure we are just beginning the fight, on the home front and the battle front.

On the problem of winning the war we are a united nation, with one purpose and one mind—the war must be won. If we are to be victorious the war must be financed properly. That is a real task. It is estimated that the war bill in 1943 will be approximately eighty billion dollars. To underwrite such a huge bill, the financial program must follow practical basic principles. Adam Smith years ago announced these in his description of a sound tax system. You will recall that they are (1) equity, (2) certainty, (3) convenience, and (4) economy. In other words, the burden of financing the war should be equitably distributed; the yield should be certain and adequate; payments should be made as convenient as possible; and finally the cost of collection and administration should be reasonably low. The Treasury Department in formulating its finance program has added two other considerations: "The fiscal policy should contribute as much as possible to the prevention of inflation and should minimize rather than exaggerate the problems of post-war readjustment."

Here are named two dangers that may be regarded as internal enemies. They are inflation and disastrous peace. While we are busy winning the war against Hitler we must build dams to hold back the flood of inflation and at the same time do more than cast a wary eye on the problems of postwar adjustment.

I shall not discuss the problem of financing the war program, but attempt to present a few thoughts on war savings. However, war savings, which it is expected will reach twelve billion dollars for the next fiscal year, play a vital and important part in financing the armed forces and providing them with the war materiel necessary to win the war. War savings, too, is one of the chief weapons along with rationing, price and wage controls in the fight against inflation. And finally, war savings, if adequate in size and held by the citizen, will help make peace after the war a successful adventure in true American living.

In this fight against inflation it is the purpose of the war savings

program to divert a considerable share of the excess income of the American people to the purchase of war stamps and bonds. To the extent that we are successful in promoting payroll savings and the individual purchase of stamps and bonds we shall be able to reduce the threat of inflation. If the war savings program is to be potent, it is necessary to establish in the consciousness of the American people the danger of inflation to the war effort and to their welfare to such an extent that we have fairly universal investment in war bonds.

I need not point out that if inflation should come war costs would conceivably increase several billion dollars per year and the costs of goods and services to the citizen become so high that wages and salaries would have very inadequate values. We must convince ourselves, it seems to me, therefore, that war savings represent an investment not only in the winning of the war but in the winning of the battle against inflation.

The American public seems to have within its grasp a standard of living which is higher than any yet experienced. The question which has not yet been fully answered is this: Will Americans voluntarily forego the increased standard of living to invest in war savings as well as other forms of saving? If by their acts the answer is yes, the battle against inflation will be won.

From the personal viewpoint of the war saver, future happiness and security may be assured by war savings. Postwar adjustments which the nation must make will be achieved with greater ease and assurance if a majority of Americans are well protected by war bonds. Individual investors who have built for themselves and their families substantial savings accounts can face old age with serenity, take care of the education of their children, build a new home or remodel the old, replace worn-out clothing, automobiles, radios, and the like, and actually prevent depression because they hold bonds that can promptly be converted into money and placed into circulation for things needed and desired.

If there were no patriotic motives for buying war bonds, such as

winning the war or preventing inflation, it seems to me that the prospects of future happiness and security to each investor are wholly sufficient reasons for investing at least ten per cent of one's income in war bonds.

As the war progresses American citizens will be expected to spend only that portion of their incomes needed for the necessities of life, either from self-imposed patriotic motives or government-imposed rationing and other war shortages. To absorb the balance, the "left-over" income, the Government calls for voluntary purchase of stamps and bonds with a tentative goal for 1943 of twelve billion dollars. As long as the policy is one of voluntary purchase its success depends on the willingness of the American people to sacrifice sufficiently to spend only for actual minimum needs, and the rest for the one great need—war savings.

There never has been a time in America when the opportunity for safe investment has been more favorable than at present. The national income has never been so great and the quantity of goods and services available more restricted. We cannot buy an automobile even if we want one, and we cannot buy gasoline if we have one We cannot even buy all the oil we need to keep warm. We are going to get along with less sugar, less coffee, and less meat than usual. The old refrigerator and the squeaky radio will have to suffice for the duration. We will make our clothes last longer.

On the other hand, money is bulging in the pockets of American workers who have no legitimate place to spend it Yes, there is one. It should be an enjoyable experience for true Americans to get along with less so the armed forces may have more of all the things needed to bring an early victory at minimum sacrifice of life and materials That is the real sacrifice Americans can make on the home front. It is a rare privilege for American citizens to invest the money that cannot or should not be spent for consumer goods in war savings stamps and bonds. Winning the war against Hitler and the Japs, stemming the threatening tide of inflation, and providing security

in the postwar period of adjustment are the three main objectives of the war savings program

I have discussed the war savings program as one consisting mainly of buying stamps and bonds. As you well know, it is much more than that It is also saving and conserving of everything we use. It is a program in which all Americans can participate, both by investing and conserving. Should any one feel that his contribution to the war effort is inadequate, he can boost his morale by buying war stamps and bonds and conserving food, clothing, and utensils. This should make him secure in the knowledge that he has done his bit This is equally true of the children who are the main concern of the schools of America. They are not only observers of the war and its activities, but are also actual participants in the war effort through the Treasury's "Schools at War" program, which illustrates the multiple program of war savings. Underlying this project are three fundamental wartime principles:

1. Save to buy war stamps and bonds.
2. Serve your school, community, and nation.
3. Conserve all kinds of materials, services, and money so there will be more of everything for America's armed forces.

I know that many teachers have seen this opportunity to help our youngsters and their families adjust to war realities and have seized it with all the vigor and professional ingenuity at their command. The education section of the war savings staff appreciates that the pupil taught how to get along with rationed food products, how to make an article of clothing or a household appliance last longer is also making a contribution on the anti-inflation front. It is our hope that these activities in conservation will be carried into the homes of America.

May I point out another problem: the money being earned after school hours by pupils these days adds emphasis to the need of your lessons on money management. As much of that money as possible should be going into war savings to protect their futures

In conclusion, during the school year 1941–1942 the children in the Los Angeles schools bought over $3,100,000 of stamps and bonds, Detroit children over $1,150,000, and in Pittsburgh over $400,000. In all, the school children amassed a total of over eighty million dollars. This week the Student War Council of Northwestern University announced the purchase of over $35,000 of stamps and bonds in a war savings week campaign.

In countless schools reports come in to the effect that teachers and children are enthusiastically participating in the program of teaching saving, serving, and conserving, as well as buying stamps and bonds. If this enthusiasm can be transmitted to adults with equal force and success, there will be more of the vital materials for the war effort and more money available for investments to secure the future front for America and her citizens. Students in the schools cannot fight on the battle front, but they are in the war, fighting with all they have. That's the spirit behind the war savings program. That's the spirit that will win the war on the battle front, on the home front, and on the future front.

RECENT SOURCE MATERIALS

Bureau of Home Economics—United States Department of Agriculture

Send for list of publications. One free copy of recent publications is available through the Office of Information, United States Department of Agriculture. Sale copies through Superintendent of Documents. Titles such as these indicate their current value Fight Food Waste in the Home; Be A Victory Planner in the Home; Market Lists for Moderate-cost and Liberal Meals; 3 Market Lists for Low Cost Meals—1 copy free, additional copies $1 25 per 100; When We Eat Out; Drying Foods for Victory Meals; Recipes to Fit Your Sugar Ration; How to Make Your Refrigerator Last Longer; ABC of Mending—free; Quality Guides in Buying Ready-made Dresses—Leaflet 105.

EDUCATION'S RESPONSIBILITY IN PRICE CONTROL AND RATIONING

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INTRODUCTION

If education's responsibility in price control and rationing is recognized by professional educators, we are making progress. I would like to expand slightly on that subject. Education has not only a responsibility for price control, in supporting the OPA program, it has a responsibility for itself. And I shall shortly explain what I mean by that.

Economics today means housekeeping on a national scale, and on an international scale. It means that we have come to realize that the well-being of each small home is inseparable from the management of the world at large. It affords us little advantage to put curtains on our windows, rugs on our floors, and pictures on our walls, if we manage our world so badly that a bomb may turn our decorations to ashes. The housekeeper today has to plan her life with due regard for the problems of the world. The family cook does not take a seat with the councils of the great, but she is nevertheless there at the conference table as an imposing force. Every time she goes out to do the family shopping, she helps to decide how much longer the war must last, how many more lives will be lost, and what will be the shape of the peace to come. She may not ever read a paper It may be that she has not voted in twenty years. But the notions she takes into her head about price regulation and rationing are going to have much to do with the future course of this world.

OPA'S PROBLEM

I can explain that point further perhaps by giving you some indication of the problem that confronts the Office of Price Administra-

tion. It is our function, you realize, to set legal limits on rents and prices and to manage rationing of consumer goods. Never has so vast a task of enforcement been undertaken by a Federal agency in the history of our Government. It is true that the regulations of OPA have so far been surprisingly effective. It is true that they have saved the public billions of dollars. It is true that actions by other agencies of our Government contribute materially to the effectiveness of OPA regulations. It is true that in general we have had excellent coöperation in the enforcement of our program. And yet, the job to be done is staggering, even though it concerns but a minority of the population.

POLICE ACTION FUTILE

We have to grant, right off the bat, that we cannot depend on police action to enforce our rules. In the first place, as a democracy, our country feels a wholesome distaste for Gestapo methods. In the second place, it would be futile for a staff of professional investigators to try to cover the ground. There are more than two hundred million retail transactions every day. And each transaction represents the possibility of an evasion of the price or rationing regulations. Naturally, no professional police force is going to cast the jaundiced eye of suspicion on every single retail sale. Another reason why drastic action is inadvisable is that it will defeat our purpose. Last week, OPA sent letters to 4,000 retailers warning them that they were violating the law and exposing themselves to the loss of their license. These 4,000 represented 40 per cent of 10,000 retail outlets investigated during a four-week enforcement drive. Should this warning prove ineffective, it might prove a serious hindrance to our distribution system to close down these places. We are confident that most merchants will respond to the warning. Those who are deliberately and wilfully violating regulations are in for more serious treatment. But meanwhile, we have the need of the pressure of public opinion and moderate legal sanctions to discourage even minor violations of the law.

IF WE FAIL

You can see from this example what general disregard of price and rationing regulations may mean. In the first place, it will mean a disproportionate rise in the cost of living, with the burden falling most heavily on those least able to bear it. This effect will seriously handicap the war program In the second place, failure of this one program will lead to cynical disregard of all regulatory measures necessary to the prosecution of the war. The rise of prices and the general disregard for government measures leads logically to a state of general anarchy, government by bribery and gangsterism, so that, even if our armies do succeed in leveling the Axis host, we shall have succumbed to a similar type of gangsterism in our own country. We had a foretaste of that under prohibition, when the foul odor of corruption penetrated even into the highest offices in our government. The issue of this war is legality and democracy against the rule of might and trickery, against tyranny of all forms, against economic tyranny as well as political and racial tyranny. And we cannot win that issue abroad if we surrender it at home.

EDUCATION'S IMPORTANCE

To obtain compliance with price and rationing regulations, no institution in our society is so well equipped or so strategically situated as the school. It is a natural rallying place for every neighborhood; its word is respected; and it is particularly well suited to teach the rudiments of our wartime regulations and to train both children and adults to comply with and support these regulations. That undertaking by the schools is essential if the price and rationing program is to have the full public support it requires.

CHANGING ROLE OF SCHOOLS

It is more than natural for schools to assume this wartime responsibility. It is essential to their continued functioning. Many of you may have noticed the statement by Harry Hopkins a short time

ago. He remarked that 1,200,000 boys and girls were expected to quit school to take war jobs. That is close to a fourth of the high-school population. He said, "High school courses should be shortened so students will have more time to work, especially on farms. Some students should quit high school altogether. A diploma can only be framed or hung on the wall. A shell that a boy or girl helps to make can kill a lot of Japs. If we don't win this war, there won't be any high schools to go to."

EDUCATION UNDER FIRE

Coming from a distinguished progressive like Harry Hopkins that sort of talk deserves profound attention. Everything he says about the changing role of the schools is true. What is worse, the enemies of education and enlightenment are going to use this situation to demand curtailment of education completely I need not tell any of you that wartime psychology always strengthens the forces who want to put out the lights and create a permanent blackout for the popular intelligence.

CONVERSION—THE SCHOOL'S SALVATION

As I see it, the chief hope for the schools, their chief defense, is to convert so completely to the support of the war program, to make themselves so valuable in performing wartime community services, that education will become regarded as an essential industry. To the extent that the schools are providing vocational training for war industries or for combat service, it is obvious that they are doing an essential job. But it must become equally obvious that the share of the schools in organizing community activities is also essential to the prosecution of the war. And in our community activities, I am sure you will agree, nothing is more essential to the winning of the war than enforcement of price, rent, and rationing regulations.

WARTIME CONSUMER EDUCATION

Now what may the schools be expected to do to support the OPA program? I will not recite for you the methods and techniques at your disposal. I would like to use this time to speak of the contents of wartime consumer education. I can divide that into three sections: understanding and knowledge; attitudes; and participation.

UNDERSTANDING

It should be clear to every citizen that our war program, and our future life, depend on our ability to build up production and to keep down personal spending. That formula applies generally to our program for planning and controlling the output of one hundred billion dollars in war goods and services, and seventy billion dollars in consumer goods and services in 1943. It implies economic regulations and controls such as our country has never before attempted. And it implies distribution of these goods and services where they will do the most good. The rule of purse must abdicate today in favor of the rule of patriotism.

This task of distribution and regulation is largely in the hands of the Office of Economic Stabilization, set up on October third only after the country had become thoroughly educated to our need for such a program Under OES, OPA is empowered to set legal limits on all rents and sales, although we do not attempt to impose such limits unless enforcement is practicable It should be understood that compliance with price and rent limits depends on economic forces controlled by other agencies of government, notably by committees in charge of the tax program, and upon public attitudes. It should be realized that it is highly unpatriotic, as well as a punishable offense, to ask or to pay more than the legal limit. Price and rent regulations are not a form of prohibition Far from denying things to the public, they aim to protect public living standards to the fullest possible degree For that reason, if for no other, they should have public support.

What I have said about price and rent regulations applies also to rationing. Rationing has two purposes. It is to assure the democratic and equitable distribution of available supplies. And it is to see that our supplies are used where they will do most to win the war and the peace to come. Rationing is not easy, but it is the best we can do.

ATTITUDES

With these understandings, your friends and neighbors should grumble a lot less about the way the price and rationing programs are being bungled. Those who understand the magnitude of the problem feel that it is only by a prayer and a miracle that we have done as well as we have. Instead of saying price control is a flop, people who understand the problem will feel determined to make price control work.

Instead of repeating gossip about there being no real shortage, or complaining when the pinch of a shortage is felt, people may determine to do everything possible to relieve a shortage, whether it is serious or not. They can develop habits of restraint and discipline which will be a shining example to others.

Instead of admiring the person who succeeds in getting away with something, violating the spirit if not the letter of the regulations, people will see these chiselers for what they really are: the friends of Hitler and Hirohito—the complacent, if unconscious, fifth column on the economic front.

Instead of casting a dirty look at the merchant and then grumbling privately about the failure of the Government to take care of crooks like that, people who understand the situation will talk the case over good-humoredly and seek to acquire the facts. They will refuse to cast aspersions, either on the Government or the merchant, until the facts are clearly established. And given the facts, they will use them to enforce the law, rather than to weaken faith in the Government.

PARTICIPATION

Complete understanding leads to attitudes which in turn lead to full participation in the OPA program This means that the schools may play a seminal role in establishing organizations and campaigns for effectual observance of OPA regulations. They may assist in training price wardens and in coaching both merchants and shoppers. They may conduct courses to familiarize people with the use of grades and standards. They may establish committees to assist the Rent Control Office in preventing evictions, or to relieve the War Price and Rationing Boards of their administrative burden I am sure that the taxpayer who saves a month's rent, or who learns that he can get a tire, as a result of the school's activities, will never again complain that the schools are a useless expense to the community.

I will not burden you now with the details of the programs which may be undertaken by the schools, but if any of you have not received adequate information, if the literature is lacking from your libraries, let me assure you that the Educational Services Branch in the Consumer Division of OPA is ready to place both the literature and the advice of its educational consultants at your disposal.

CONCLUSION

I have said what the schools may be expected to do about the OPA program. May I also note what the OPA program is doing for the schools. I have already commented on what this program can mean in terms of community relations. Let me say a few words about what OPA means in terms of school operations. First, here is a specific example. Many schools in this country you know provide milk and crackers to pupils at a nominal sum These luncheons mean a great deal to the health and intellectual alertness of pupils. A rise in prices threatens the continuance of this luncheon program in many communities Regulations by OPA will determine whether

or not these programs may continue. That is one specific example.

Now let us look at the operations of education in a broader sense. You know the school's budget is determined by a tax program set as much as a year ahead of time. Unless prices are successfully regulated, it is possible that the general price level may double between the time the school budget is created and the time it is spent. In effect, the rise in prices forces the school to work at half its usual budget. How would any of you here like to have a fifty per cent cut in salary today? Unless they come to the support of price regulation, that is what the schools are asking for.

Finally, I would like you to consider the influence of price regulation on the philosophy of education. A good many educators are speaking and thinking a great deal of the postwar world. It is my earnest opinion that we are shaping that postwar world by what we do now. If we slip into economic chaos—if we allow the accidental accumulation of large fortunes on the one hand, and the impoverishment of the laboring masses on the other, during our wartime operations—the peace to come will conform to that same evil pattern. None of us wants that kind of a peace. We are fighting, we believe, to prevent that kind of a peace. If that is the case, then, let us not have that kind of a war.

RECENT SOURCE MATERIALS

Bibliographies

Materials for Consumer Education, A Selected Bibliography. Prepared by the Consumers' Counsel Division, United States Department of Agriculture. 1941, pp. 42. Price 10 cents.

Consumer Knowledge Helps Win the War. Bulletin 11, March 1942 Consumers Division, Office of Price Administration.

Selected Bibliography on Wartime Consumer Problems, Revised, 1942. Office of Price Administration.

THE IMPORTANCE OF CONSUMER-RETAILER UNDERSTANDING DURING THE WAR

ROGER WOLCOTT

Executive Secretary, National Consumer-Retailer Council, Inc

The primary objective of the National Consumer-Retailer Council is to promote a cooperative approach to consumer-retailer problems. When founded, the Council was frankly regarded as an experiment. Today the Council has proved that consumer-retailer cooperation can and does work on the national level.

Now there is an urgent need that it be made to work in local communities for never did consumers and retailers face a greater number of perplexing problems of vital importance to both. Paramount among these problems is that of the quality of goods. It is basic to the conservation of the nation's raw materials. It is basic to maintaining living standards at a level which makes possible the maintenance of health and welfare. Above all, it is basic to price regulation, for price regulation means little or nothing if price is not tied to quality.

Recently there have been encouraging indications that the Office of Price Administration is paying more attention than previously to the need to protect the consuming public against hidden and unnecessary deterioration of quality. One of the most convincing bits of evidence is that of creating a Standard Division—raising it from its former position of an inconspicuous branch in the Consumer Division. In a policy statement issued September 3, announcing the new Standards Division, Leon Henderson stated.

> The Office of Price Administration is keenly aware of the fact that as military requirements—now taking over a third of our national production and soon to take almost half—bite deeper and deeper into civilian production, pressure for changes in the quality and design of commodities and services will continue to increase.

The OPA recognizes that these pressures impose upon it an increasingly heavy responsibility to see that its price, rent, and rationing programs and the educational efforts attending them, are so devised and administered that the quality of commodities and services are taken into account.

Still more recently, the OPA put the matter simply and succinctly in a November 8 release which stated in part:

Price tags mean a great deal to the woman who does the family shopping, but price tags tell only half the story of higher living costs in wartime. The rest of the story appears in later installments—when the cotton housedress shrinks from a size 16 to a hopeless 12; when the $1.35 stockings give only 95 cents worth of wear; when the red design or figured slip-cover runs into its white background the first time it is washed.

These are hidden price increases that punch the family pocket-book and waste the nation's limited resources of machinery, materials and manpower, just when we should be putting them to the best possible use.

Retailers, as well as consumers, have a vital stake in this question of quality When quality goes down, they may in no way be responsible. Nevertheless, since it is they who are closest to the public, they are the ones who are bound to receive the kicks. On top of the many difficulties which retailers face today, certainly they do not wish to have piled the loss of customer good will which will follow unnecessary quality changes in consumer goods.

Some changes in quality are inevitable as the result of tremendous war requirements. Provided the reasons for them are understood, the consuming public will accept them with good grace It is the unnecessary lowering of quality that will spell trouble.

The Government has taken action to prevent unnecessary quality changes in some commodities. For example, the OPA schedule on sheets not only established price ceilings, but also set up specifications for four different types and required that each sheet be labeled as to the size, type, and, if it is a substandard or a second, that this fact be stated on the label.

The OPA has also required that wholesalers must label beef with its grade. This action was taken to protect retailers against the "upgrading" of beef by wholesalers in order to justify higher prices. From the standpoint of the consuming public, it would have been desirable for the OPA to have required that the grade markings on meat carry over to the ultimate consumer—which is not the case at the present time. Price schedules on dry beans, potatoes, onions, and turkeys also embody Government grades and it has been reported that dollars-and-cents ceilings on canned products are to be accompanied by grade labeling.

The OPA has, in addition, taken action in regard to nylon stockings. Various classifications of hose have been defined, a maximum price for each classification established, and each pair of stockings must be labeled as to its classification, denier, gauge, and quality.

Sheets, meat, nylon stockings—this is obviously a very meager beginning on the important task of tying price to quality. What can be done in respect to the host of other consumer goods—especially those which have been designated as cost-of-living commodities?

One answer is to set up Victory models and prescribe that only these models can be made. This has already been done for bicycles, stoves, work clothes, and rubber heels. As the war continues we shall probably see more Victory models for goods which use highly strategic materials such as metals and rubber Where the need is great this is about the only solution.

A second answer is to establish dollars-and-cents ceilings for specific commodities based on standards and to prohibit the making of goods which fall below these standards or to penalize the manufacturer from a price standpoint to such an extent that "below standard quality goods" would prove unprofitable to make One major difficulty in the path of such a program is the length of time it takes to develop satisfactory standards. Furthermore, in relation to many types of products, very little basic research has been done to determine which characteristics of a product must be taken into

consideration in establishing standards. Standards can and should be worked out for many products. But, from the standpoint of time alone, it seems doubtful if standards can provide the entire answer for a widespread program.

What is needed is a device that will effectively tie price to quality and which at the same time can be put into operation with comparative speed and with comparatively little expense. Informative labeling, in the opinion of the National Consumer-Retailer Council, provides a workable solution, and it would in no way act as a deterrent to the use of more drastic measures, such as Victory models or the establishment of standards.

On the basis of extensive research and study the National Consumer-Retailer Council has defined an informative label (a textile label, for example) as one that answers the following five questions: What is the product made of? How is it made? How will it perform? How should it be cared for? and How should it be used? These questions, the Council believes, should be answered in specific terms, not generalities.

A number of leading firms have adopted labels which conform to this definition, showing that from the business standpoint it represents good selling practice. Consumers, for their part, have made it evident that these questions constitute the points about which they are most anxious to know.

From the standpoint of retailers, informative labeling would safeguard them against unjustified claims of quality deterioration. It would also protect the honest business man from the chiseler

From the standpoint of the manufacturer, it would enable him to maintain the individuality of his product, would safeguard him against competitors who might wish to chisel on prices through lowering quality, and would represent a device that would mean little extra expense since the information could be added, in most cases, to existing labels.

Informative labeling also offers advantages to those in govern-

ment who are responsible for checking inflation and in checking on compliance with price regulations. The General Maximum Price Regulation now provides that the quality of consumer goods shall remain essentially the same as the quality level of March 1942. Obviously, however, no check can be made on compliance with this provision, nor on evasion of specific price regulations through the lowering of quality, unless there is some effective means established by which compliance officials can identify the quality of the product.

This question of wartime quality identification of merchandise is highly important because it has a direct bearing on inflation, on living standards, on consumer-business relations. It is, however, by no means the only urgent problem. There are those raised by successor materials, curtailed retail services, hoarding, the return of goods to the store, and mail- and phone-order buying, which is being adapted widely by consumers because of gas and tire restrictions and which must be worked out so that it will be equally satisfactory to the store and its customers

The National Consumer-Retailer Council has published a series of leaflets on these and other current problems relating to the buying and selling of goods. On each subject taken up the Council has issued two leaflets—one addressed to the consumers, and one to retailers—suggesting steps each may take, in many cases in conjunction with the other, to help solve the problem presented

There is, for example, the question of successor materials. Retailers must do a good job of selling them if consumers, who like to stay on well-beaten tracks, are not to refuse to accept new products. To avoid customer resentment, retailers must be prepared to tell frankly both the limitations and advantages of the new goods on their shelves. Consumers, for their part, must learn to buy the new products intelligently and to learn to use and care for them so as to obtain maximum service.

Curtailed retail services are another problem. For the most part,

consumers have responded generously to retail appeals that they help the store achieve the restricted delivery truck mileage made mandatory by the Government. They have done a splendid job of carrying their own. But stores will probably in the near future be required by the Government to curtail much more sharply services to which consumers have so long been accustomed. Will they understand why these changes are necessary, accept them with good grace? The answer will be "Yes" if consumers and retailers discuss the problem together

Returns of merchandise to the store is also a pressing matter. The National Consumer-Retailer Council believes that the consumer's right to return merchandise which is defective or which is returned for some other equally valid reason should not be abrogated. But at the same time, *unnecessary* returns of merchandise spell waste both for the consumer and the store, a waste of manpower and materials which we can ill afford.

One of the prime retail worries today is shortage of personnel. The situation created by this shortage is certainly one which calls for consumer understanding Women will have to be more patient if they must wait their turn before being served. Perhaps they will have to learn more about waiting on themselves even in stores which are not made for self-service. And here again, the merits of informative labeling warrant a word Labels, giving the information which the consumer usually expects to obtain from the salesperson, provide a basis for self-service when and if it becomes necessary.

So much of the problems. What should be the approach to them? First, as citizens we must live up to our responsibility to solve, on our own initiative, as many of our problems as possible During war the Government must of necessity exercise far greater control over our lives than in normal times. But even if we would, we cannot throw all of our problems into the lap of our Government. It has plenty on its hands already. Nor do we want to. For individuals and groups of individuals to solve, whenever possible, their own

problems, without interference from the Government, is the American way of doing things.

The Council is prepared to give all help possible to build a permanent, cooperative relationship between local groups of consumers and retailers. Care must be taken that neither group dominates the other Retailers must guard themselves against underestimating the "little woman's" intelligence or assuming that all intelligent consumer groups are radical Consumers must likewise guard themselves against the belief that a retailer cannot really be interested in consumer problems or understand the consumer point of view. The Council has prepared a guide for groups wishing to establish a cooperative relationship and believes that adherence to the principles set forth in it will do much to assure the success of local consumer-retailer programs.

Cooperation is not always the easy way. But it is one which benefits all concerned. Those who succeed in making it work will find that they have established a pattern which will not only help solve wartime problems, but will hold over as a permanent advance during the years to come.

RECENT SOURCE MATERIALS

Periodicals

Consumer Education Service Prepared by Mrs Harriet Howe. Address American Home Economics Association, 620 Mills Bldg, Washington, D C. $1.00 a year.

Consumer Education Journal. Edward Reich, Editor Address: Consumer Education Association, 45 Sunnyside Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y. 25c an issue, $1 00 a year.

Consumers' Guide Consumers' Counsel, Department of Agriculture Periodical published twice monthly 50 cents a year.

Victory Office for War Information. Current information on all phases of the war effort. Weekly publication 75 cents for 52 issues

Education for Victory (Replaces *School Life* for the duration of the War) United States Office of Education Provides current information specifically dealing with the schools' part in the war effort Biweekly, $1 00 a year

ADJUSTING FAMILY FINANCES TO WIN THE WAR AND THE PEACE

JOSEPHINE KRIMER

Assistant Professor of Education, New York University

This article is presented in the hope that it will help teachers to face their own wartime financial problems clearly, to understand the financial problems facing the parents of their pupils, and to assist their pupils in doing their bit of financial adjustment. We must all spend less and save more to win the victory.

What problems does war create for consumers? The most serious consumer problems are: scarcity of consumer goods and services, deterioration of quality, and the danger of rising prices. Scarcity and deterioration of quality cannot be avoided, because we cannot produce the vast amount of war materials needed and continue to produce the usual amount and quality of consumer goods and services. Rising prices not only cause our money to buy less during the war, but also may result in a postwar fall of prices with consequent stalling of production and trade and reduction of family incomes.

Our experience during and after the last war was that the cost of living more than doubled from 1914 to 1920, fell in 1921 and 1922, leveled off during the later twenties, fell again from 1930 to 1933, then began to rise gradually (Table 1 and Chart 1). Many of us remember both the wartime rise in prices and the postwar depression as experiences we do not care to repeat.

During this war, so far, the cost of living has reacted very much as it did during the last war. In the 18 months from June 1915 to December 1916 it rose 15 per cent. In the 18 months from February 1941 to August 1942 it rose 16 per cent.

War is a bad business at best. Must we also have wartime inflation and postwar depression? Not necessarily! Our Government believes that the wartime rise in prices can be at least retarded "Less con-

sumer goods, less money spent for consumer goods; more military goods, more money spent for military goods" is the formula. In other words, consumers are asked to divert a substantial part of their spending power to finance the war.

TABLE 1

INDEXES OF THE COST OF LIVING OF WAGE EARNERS AND LOWER SALARIED WORKERS IN LARGE CITIES DURING WORLD WAR I AND WORLD WAR II

Years	*Month*	*Index 1913 =100**	*Index 1935 —1939 =100†*	*Years*	*Month*	*Index 1913 =100**	*Index 1935 —1939 =100†*
1937	Dec		103	1921 and 1947	May	179	
1938	Dec		100		Sept.	177	
1939	Dec		100		Dec	175	
1914 and 1940	Dec	103	101	1922 and 1948	March	169	
1915 and 1941	Jan		101		June	169	
	Feb		101		Sept	168	
	March		101		Dec	170	
	April		102	1923 and 1949	March	170	
	May		103		June	172	
	June		105		Sept	175	
	July		105		Dec	175	
	Aug		106	1924 and 1950	March	173	
	Sept		108		June	172	
	Oct.		109		Sept.	173	
	Nov		110		Dec	174	
	Dec	105	111	1925 and 1951	June	177	
1916 and 1942	Jan		112		Dec	181	
	Feb		113	1926 and 1952	June	179	
	March		114		Dec	178	
	April		115	1927 and 1953	June	178	
	May		116		Dec	175	
	June		116	1928 and 1954	June	173	
	July		117		Dec	173	
	Aug		117	1929 and 1955	June	173	
	Sept		118		Dec	174	
	Oct		119	1930 and 1956	June	170	
	Nov		‡		Dec	164	
	Dec.	117		1931 and 1957	June	154	
1917 and 1943	Jan				Dec	148	

* *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1937, p 1455.

† *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1940, October 1942, and current issues

‡ If you are interested in knowing how well we are succeeding in keeping the cost of living under control, fill in the data month by month

Years	*Month*	*Index 1913 = 100**	*Index 1935 – 1939 = 100†*
	Feb.		
	March		
	April		
	May		
	June		
	July		
	Aug		
	Sept		
	Oct		
	Nov		
	Dec	138	
1918 and 1944	Dec.	167	
1919 and 1945	June	171	
	Dec	191	
1920 and 1946	June	211	
	Dec	196	..
1932 and 1958	June	139	
	Dec	134	
1933 and 1959	June	130	
	Dec	135	
1934 and 1960	June	137	
	Nov	138	
1935 and 1961	March	140	
	July	140	
	Oct	141	
1936 and 1962	Jan	142	
	April	141	
	July	143	
	Sept	134	
	Dec	134	
1937 and 1963	March	146	
	June	147	
	Sept	148	

For footnotes *see* p 295

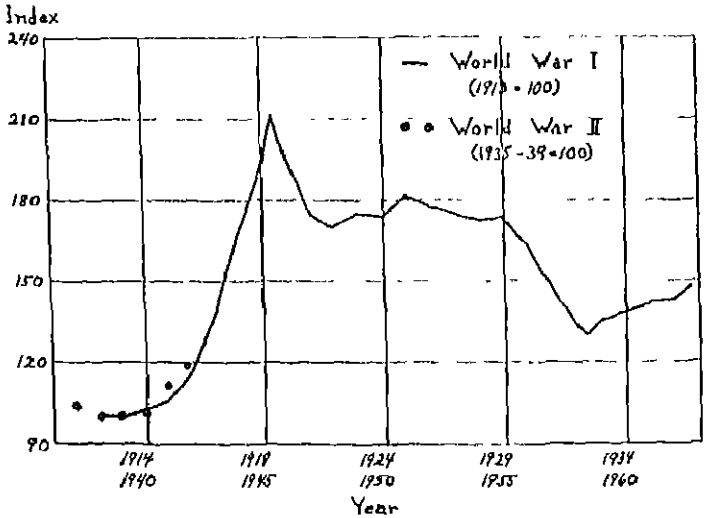


CHART 1. COST OF LIVING IN WORLD WARS I AND II

The cost of living is behaving now very much as it did during the last war Whether it continues to do so depends in part upon what we civilians do with our money

The President's seven-point plan for softening some of the effects of war by controlling inflation can be translated into consumer do's and don'ts as follows:

Spend less

Decide what you can do without for the duration.
Make the dollars you spend go as far as possible
Supplement the money you spend with more time and energy in making goods and performing services for yourself
Waste nothing.
Take care of what you have
Do not buy above the ceiling price.
Do not hoard

Save more

Save for your income tax, due March 15, next year
Get out of debt
Save your money till after the war when it can buy goods and services which are not now available.
Invest in war savings stamps and bonds.

The plan will not succeed without the coöperation of a large percentage of the population. *To what extent should you coöperate?* A study of the way incomes were distributed and spent before the war (1935–1936) and an analysis of what has happened to your finances since the beginning of the war may help you to decide

The lower third of the consumers (families and single individuals) in theUnited States in 1935–1936 had incomes of less than $780 (Table 2 and Chart 2) On the average, consumers in this group spent more than they earned—that is, for the group as a whole, deficits[1] were greater than savings (Table 3 and Chart 3). Ninety per cent of their income was spent for food and home maintenance[2] (Table 4 and Chart 4).

[1] Deficits were due to drawing on savings, borrowing, gifts from friends and relatives, and relief

[2] Home maintenance includes housing, household operation, and furnishings and equipment

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES AND SINGLE INDIVIDUALS BY INCOME LEVEL, 1935-1936

Income Level	*Number*	*Per Cent at Each Level*	*Cumulative Per Cent*
Under $250	2,123,534	5.38	5.38
$250–$500	4,587,377	11 63	17 01
$500–750	5,771,900	14 63	31.64
$750–$1,000	5,876,078	14 90	46 54
$1,000–$1,250	4,990,995	12 65	59 19
$1,250–$1,500	3,743,428	9 49	68 68
$1,500–$1,750	2,889,901	7 32	76 00
$1,750–$2,000	2,296,022	5 82	81 82
$2,000–$2,250	1,704,535	4 32	86.14
$2,250–$2,500	1,254,076	3.18	89 32
$2,500–$3,000	1,475,474	3 74	93.06
$3,000–$3,500	851,919	2 16	95 22
$3,500–$4,000	502,159	1 27	96 49
$4,000–$4,500	286,053	72	97 21
$4,500–$5,000	178,138	45	97 66
$5,000–$7,500	380,266	.96	98.62
$7,500–$10,000	215,642	.55	99 17
$10,000–$15,000	152,682	39	99.56
$15,000–$20,000	67,923	.17	99 73
$20,000–$25,000	39,825	.10	99 83
$25,000–$30,000	25,583	.06	99 89
$30,000–$40,000	17,959	.05	99 94
$40,000–$50,000	8,340	02	99 96
$50,000–$100,000	13,041	03	99 99
$100,000–$250,000	4,144	01	100 00
$250,000–$500,000	916	(*)	
$500,000–$1,000,000	240	(*)	
$1,000,000 and over	87	(*)	
All levels	39,458,300	100.00	

(*) Less than 0 005 per cent

Selected from National Resources Committee, *Consumer Incomes in the United States*, p 6, Table 2.

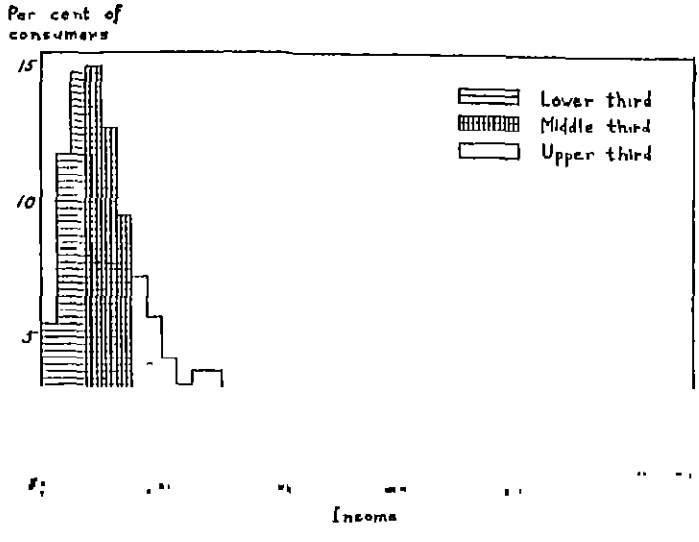


CHART 2 INCOMES IN UNITED STATES, 1935–1936
Two thirds of the families had incomes of less than $1,500

The middle third of the consumers received incomes of from $780 to $1,450. The consumers in this group, as a whole, just about broke even. About 70 per cent of their income was spent for food and home maintenance.

The upper third of the consumers received incomes of $1,450 and more. The consumers in this group, as a whole, managed to save and to share with others in the form of gifts and personal taxes Only 46 per cent of their income was spent for food and home maintenance.

Strangely enough, about 30 per cent of the income was spent by the consumers of each of these groups in 1935-1936 for clothing, personal care, automobile, other transportation, medical care, tobacco, recreation, reading, formal education, and other minor items. Thirty per cent of a low income provided for these items very inadequately, 30 per cent of a moderate income provided for them com-

TABLE 3

AVERAGE EXPENDITURES OF FAMILIES AND SINGLE INDIVIDUALS, 1935–1936

Income Level	*Average Expenditure per Consumer Unit for*		
	Family Living	*Gifts and Personal Taxes*	*Savings*
Under $500	$420	$6	—$119
$500–$750	673	19	—66
$750–$1,000	886	30	—43
$1,000–$1,250	1,099	40	—19
$1,250–$1,500	1,285	55	25
$1,500–$1,750	1,480	65	68
$1,750–$2,000	1,652	76	107
$2,000–$2,500	1,925	98	198
$2,500–$3,000	2,269	119	326
$3,000–$5,000	2,681	167	548
$4,000–$5,000	3,219	252	934
$5,000–$10,000	4,369	354	2,044
$10,000–$15,000	6,060	933	4,449
$15,000–$20,000	8,937	1,403	6,953
$20,000 and over	14,799	5,911	21,432
All levels	1,273	78	151

Selected from National Resources Committee, *Consumer Expenditures in the United States*, p 83, Table 19A

fortably, and 30 per cent of a high income provided for them comparatively luxuriously.

What does all this mean to you in your own personal financial management? To what extent should you spend less and save more?

Where did you fit into this picture in 1935–1936?

How has the war affected your finances?

How have your family needs changed?

What percentage of the population do you think will have to finance the war?

Do you place yourself among those who should cooperate only to the extent that they are forced to do so by:

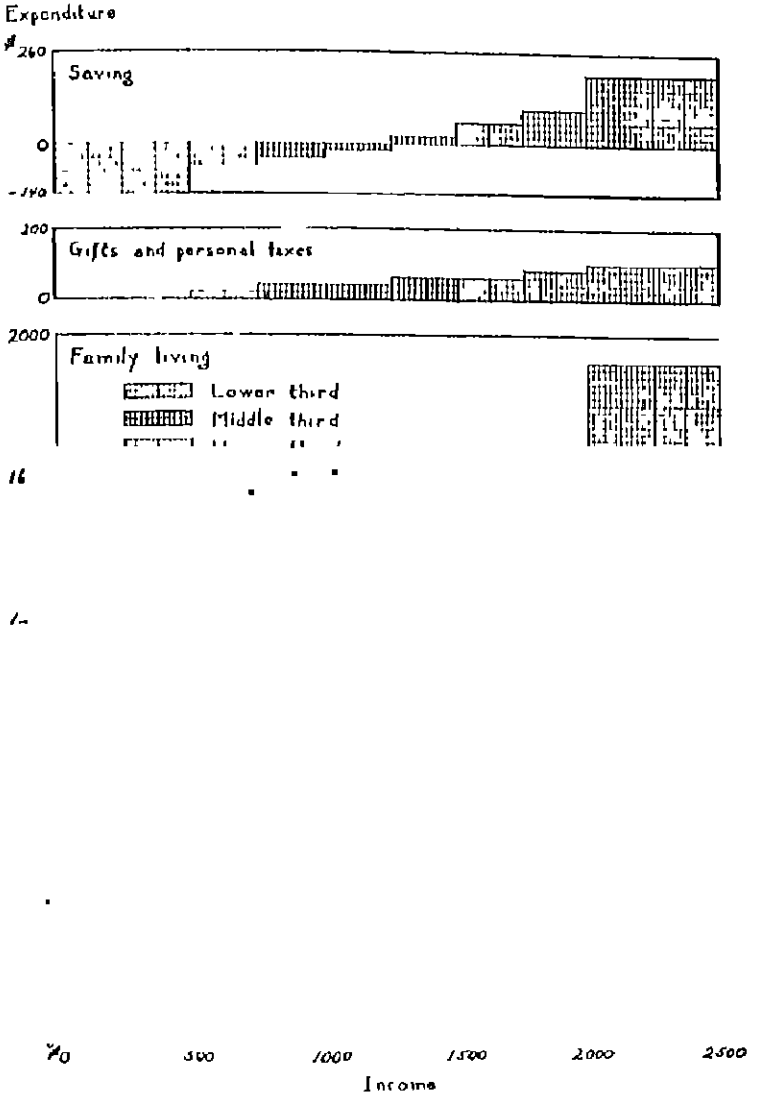


CHART 4. EXPENDITURES IN UNITED STATES, 1935–1936

The lower third spent more than they received, the middle third came out just about even, the upper third saved and shared with others

Scarcity of goods and services?

Deterioration of quality?

The higher cost of living?

Price, wage, and rent ceilings?

Rationing?

Income tax?

TABLE 4

AVERAGE EXPENDITURES FOR FAMILY LIVING OF FAMILIES AND SINGLE INDIVIDUALS IN EACH THIRD OF THE NATION, 1935–1936

Item	*Average Expenditure of Families and Single Individuals in Lower Third, Incomes Under $780*	*Middle Third, Incomes of $780 to $1,150*	*Upper Third, Incomes of $1,450 and Over*
Food	$236	$404	$642
Home maintenance	178	335	720
Housing	$115	$199	$408
Household operation	54	108	240
Furnishings and equipment	9	28	72
Clothing and personal care	59	124	295
Clothing	47	102	251
Personal care	12	22	44
Transportation	27	76	252
Automobile	16	57	215
Other	11	19	37
Minor items	50	117	303
Medical care	20	41	106
Tobacco	10	23	40
Recreation	9	28	89
Reading	6	12	23
Formal education	2	7	30
Other items	3	6	15

Adapted from National Resources Committee, *Consumer Expenditures in the United States*, p. 40, Table 6.

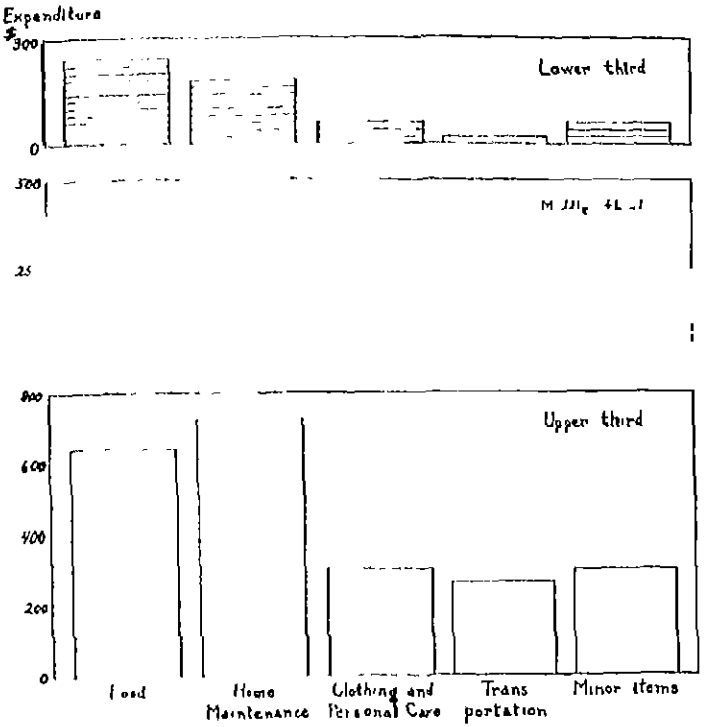


CHART 4 FAMILY LIVING EXPENDITURES, UNITED STATES, 1935–1936

Food and home maintenance were the largest items in the budget. The lower the income, the larger was the proportion of the income used for these items

Do you place yourself among those who should in addition cooperate voluntarily through

Clearing up debts?

Purchase of war stamps and bonds?

Other savings?

Sharing with others less fortunate?

If your efforts are going to be effective, first of all you must have the will to spend less and save more. It must seem worth working at. Then you must have a specific plan. How much will your income

tax be? What form of savings are best for you? What goods and services that you would normally have can you omit or postpone? How shall your next pay be spent? No one can make these decisions but you and your family. However, comparison with the prewar spending patterns of the lower, middle, and upper thirds of the population may be helpful (Charts 3 and 4) Obviously, if you are going to spend less, you will spend more like families on a lower income level than your own. You are likely to have to spend a larger percentage of your income for food and home maintenance.

Having made the plan, you will need some way of checking on yourself to see whether you are living within the plan. I find it helpful to have a list of the items and amounts for which I expect to write checks in the front of my checkbook, allowing a column for each month, so that I can record the checks as written (Form 1) At any time, I can look at the cash in my purse, the balance on my checkbook, and the checks to be written and decide whether I can afford a given item this month. If not, it has to wait

FORM 1

CHECKBOOK PLAN AND RECORD

Budget Items	*Plan*	*Actual Expenditure* October	November	December
War savings bonds	$	$	$	$
Savings account				
Rent				
Electricity				
Telephone				
Gas				
Spending money				
Other				
Total	$	$	$	$

The amount which I must save each month in order to meet all the big bills which come in during the year, such as life insurance premiums, income tax, and the like, is carefully computed at the

beginning of the year. A savings-account record is set up (Form 2). The plan for deposits and withdrawals is written in pencil at the beginning of the year and traced in ink when the transaction is completed. A double set of columns could be used if one cared to keep the plan and performance separate. Some people prefer simply to scatter their big bills through the year, for example, to buy clothing in a month when they are not paying a life-insurance premium.

FORM 2

SAVINGS PLAN AND RECORD

Year	*Month*	*Deposits*	*Withdrawals*		
			Item	*Amount*	*Balance*
1942	Oct.	$———	Clothing	$———	$———
	Nov	———		———	———
	Dec	———		———	———
1943	Jan.	———	Life insurance	———	———
	Feb	———	Clothing	———	———
	Mar	———	Federal income tax	———	———
	Apr.	———	State income tax	———	———

The checkbook plan and record and the savings-account plan and record are the most essential written parts of my financial management. Of course, adjustments have to be made from time to time, but the better the plan, the fewer the adjustments. I also find it convenient to keep a small notebook in which I assemble the items which I need to make up my income-tax report. If you want more complete records, it is relatively simple to file sales slips and returned checks and to record them in an account book. Such a record is helpful in making next year's plan.

Some of those who do not keep a bank account find it convenient to have a set of envelopes or boxes for dividing the income among the more important items in the budget. I myself find it convenient at times to isolate the money for a certain purpose in a special envelope or compartment of my purse, so that it will not be frittered away instead of being used for its own purpose.

I believe it is far more common to pay the regular bills with cash on payday, lay away some cash to last till next payday, and, if there is any balance, purchase the most important items on the family's want list. If payday comes every two weeks, it is necessary to decide which bills shall be paid the first of the month and which the middle of the month. Certainly there is no reason why any less thought and planning should go into this method of handling money than any other. The family still decides the amount of the monthly bills, the amount of money which is allowed to trickle out in small sums, and which items on the want list come first.

Unfortunately, by this method, one is apt not to save the larger sums of money needed to purchase really large items. Easy payment plans are used, and, since one must pay for this convenience, one can buy less goods and services. Therefore it seems to me that it is important to give some thought to one's method of handling money for various purposes (Form 3) It is true that you must pay for the privilege of using a checking account, but you do not pay as much to accumulate your own money as you do to borrow from others. If you can leave your money in the bank for a time, the bank will pay you.

Have you been used to buying on the installment plan and now find yourself faced with credit restrictions and lack of refrigerators, cars, and the like? How does it feel to be out of debt? Are you saving the money which would otherwise have gone into installment payments in order to be able to pay cash for these items when they are again on the market?

Are you earning more than you have ever earned before? Are you spending the excess now while the goods are scarce or saving it for a time when they will be more plentiful? Are you saving any of it for postwar readjustment that you may need to make?

Have you always been among the more fortunate? Are you getting the highest possible enjoyment from possessions acquired in

FORM 3

METHOD OF HANDLING MONEY

Type of Expenditure	*Which Shall It Be?*					
	Installment Purchase	*Charge Account*	*Cash*	*Checking Account*	*Savings Account*	*Investment*
Bills paid within the month	?	?	?	?	?	?
Big bills coming within the year, as	?	?	?	?	?	?
Clothing						
Fuel						
Vacation						
Furniture						
Equipment						
Insurance premium						
Car						
Savings for items too big to accumulate in one year, as	?	?	?	?	?	?
Emergency fund						
Down payment for house						
Investment in business						
Education fund						

the past? Are you doing your share to finance the war or are you waiting for some one else to do it?

Have you been wanting to help in the war effort, but do not know how? Here is a job of major importance right at your doorstep It will not be easy, it will not be fun, but it will give you the satisfaction of knowing that you are helping to win the war and the peace.

SUGGESTED READING

Be a Victory Planner in Your Home Issued by the Bureau of Home Economics and the Consumers' Counsel Division of the United States

Department of Agriculture For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D C. Price, $1 00 per hundred copies.

Howard F. Bigelow, *Family Finance* Philadelphia. J B. Lippincott Company, 1936. Chapter 14, Family Budgeting in Theory and Practice.

Helen Dallas. *How to Win on the Home Front*. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 72. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York, N. Y. Price, 10 cents

"Eight Characters in Pursuit of Defeat," *Consumers' Guide*, June 1942, pp. 6, 7.

Alice C Hanson, Jerome Cornfield, and Lenore Epstein "Income and Spending and Saving of City Families in Wartime," *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1942, pp. 419–434.

Alice C. Hanson and Jerome Cornfield, "Spending and Saving of the Nation's Families in Wartime," *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1942, pp. 700–713.

Thomas K. Hitch. "Alternatives in War Finance," *Survey of Current Business*, October 1942, pp. 15–22.

Money Management Series. Household Finance Corporation, 919 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. Price, 2½ cents per booklet.

Money Management Principles
Money Management, the Budget Calendar
George Clark's Cartoons on Money Management for the Family

RECENT SOURCE MATERIALS

Public Affairs Pamphlets

Address: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City Send for order forms. Special attention is called to: 72. How to Win on the Home Front; 64. How to Check Inflation; 63. More for Your Money; 61 Installment Selling—Pros and Cons; 51. Read Your Labels; 33. This Problem of Food.

There are many other public affairs pamphlets equally useful in schools.

WAR DEVELOPMENTS IN NUTRITION

CLYDE B. SCHUMAN

Instructor in Education, New York University, Curriculum Director of Students Majoring in Nutrition

Those responsible for the food and nutrition front in this country today have a real task. It is similar, in some respects, to the task given those responsible for the food front in Britain, at the outbreak of this war: to maintain the level of nutrition that had been attained by Britain up to that time and if possible to raise it.

A recent report, "The Food Front in Britain,"[1] gives some steps that have been taken there by those responsible, and some of the results. This report is illuminating, encouraging, and challenging

According to this report, the measures taken in Britain fall under three main heads: (1) increased home production, (2) an import policy designed to get the maximum food value for shipping space devoted to food, and (3) distribution of available food according to physiological needs

The author writes, "The story of how production has been so rapidly stepped up and an organization devised for the distribution of food in accordance with physiological needs, will form an important part of the history of the war." He adds that ". . . not the least interesting feature of this story will be the way in which changes in farming, in food distribution, and in dietary habits were brought about with the good-will and cooperation of everybody concerned and with an almost complete absence of any grumbling about the inevitable inconveniences involved"

In order to ensure that people will be fed under any condition, communal feeding has been one of the measures developed As a part of that plan, "Every factory has its canteen, meals are provided for children in schools and restaurants for the general population are established in every town" One very interesting feature of this

[1] Sir John Orr, "The Food Front in Britain," *Britain Today*, No 78 (October 1942)

development is that at all these centers a meal rich in all the things needed for health is provided and at a price within the purchasing power of practically everybody.

To enable every person in Britain to get his proper share, some foods were rationed at the beginning of the war These foods were chiefly imports. Since that time, other additional foods have been rationed.

From the first through the last page of "The Food Front in Britain," one is impressed with the careful planning, despite the screeching of bombs, and the accomplishments made possible through such plans.

In the matter of planning for ration cards, we read, "But ration cards are of little use if a portion of the population cannot afford to purchase the rationed amount. To avoid hardships among the poor, the prices of all the main foodstuffs have been fixed and some have been subsidized. Thus, for example, the price of bread has been kept the same as at peace-time and mothers and children of all classes, rich and poor, can get milk at a price actually below the pre-war level. In necessitous cases they get it free."

What are some of the results of wartime measures in Britain? We are told that they have changed the dietary habits of the people. This is attributed in part to the better distribution of food It is pointed out that due to a rise in wages and the elimination of unemployment there is an increase in purchasing power among the less well-to-do third of the nation, and that this, coupled with rationing, has evened up consumption—the rich and the poor each getting their share. In the following statement, he makes it clear however that other war-time measures are at least in part responsible for the change in dietary habits: "There is a scarcity of some of the protective foods, such as eggs and meat, and in winter, fresh fruit, but there is an increased consumption of potatoes, vegetables, oatmeal, milk and 'National' bread, which is richer in vitamins than white bread. These taken

together in sufficient amounts provide all the vitamins and everything else needed for health."

What of these dietary changes in terms of the state of nutrition of the people? The report reveals that "a dietary survey of a number of workers' families in the south of Scotland, done a few months ago, showed that compared with 1937-38 there was a decrease in consumption of some foods but an increase in consumption of others, especially of potatoes, vegetables, oatmeal and milk. A comparison of the pre-war diet with the war diet showed that on the whole the war diet was richer in the essential vitamins and minerals than the pre-war diet. This was confirmed by clinical examinations which showed that there were no obvious signs of malnutrition."

The concluding paragraph in "The Food Front in Britain" gives evidence of thinking not only in terms of the present, but also in terms of the future. We are reminded that at the beginning of this war there was still a large part of the population of Britain whose diet was not up to the standard needed for health, that the war has forced Britain to produce not with a view to trade, but a view to consumption, that Britain has produced not in accordance with purchasing power, but in accordance with physiological needs. We share with the author his thoughtful questioning as to what is going to happen to these food measures after the war and his stirring appeal for a world food policy that will be based on human needs.

But what of nutrition wartime developments and needs in our own country? What is the task of those of us who are on the food front in the United States of America? Insofar as it relates to our own nutrition, it is, as was stated earlier, not dissimilar to that of Britain: to maintain the level of nutrition attained by our people when we entered the war and to make every effort possible to raise that level to higher levels. But in this country, where we have such large agricultural areas, and where up to the present we have not been daily facing bombs, we have even a greater task than this

We shall need to continue to give increasing attention to production. We shall need especially to produce milk, whole grain products, potatoes, green leafy and other vegetables, fruits, poultry and eggs. We shall need to supply these and other food products for our own army men and women and our own civilian population. We shall also need to produce enough to furnish certain of our allies with some of their food needs and to plan for and produce certain foods which are and will be needed for the carrying out of the world food policy—this policy built on human needs.

We shall need to be thrifty with our funds. We shall need to buy wisely, to use wisely, and to avoid waste. And most important, we shall need to share equally and willingly one with another the foods that are less plentiful If rationing is needed to accomplish this necessary distribution of foods, then we shall need to share by rationing. As in Britain we shall need to see that our distribution of foods is on a physiological basis. This means planning so that the well-to-do, the moderately well-to-do, and the less well-to-do financially will be enabled to purchase the essential vitamins and minerals, proteins and calories, through the foodstuffs which will be made available.

The excellent beginning that has been made by the Committee on Food and Nutrition in Industry will need to be continued and to be enlarged. The support that is being given this committee by war industries, food industries, restaurant and hotel groups, and others concerned is and can be a powerful influence for good on our food front. As a part of our wartime food measures, we shall need to make every effort to see that those responsible for the feeding of families and for the feeding of individuals and groups in our school lunchrooms, our cafeterias for factory workers and others of our people, our restaurants, our tearooms, our hotels, and our other dispensary food agencies, be they drugstores or hot-dog stands, purchase the foods wisely, prepare these foods scientifically and appetizingly, and serve these foods under sanitary conditions. We shall need to give very careful thought to the feeding of children whose parents are employed and unable to meet this responsibility

Battle fronts and world events will of necessity have an influence upon food shortages and rationing. The food may exist in abundance but facilities for delivering it may make that delivery impossible. Transportation within our country will also influence our food supply. Good planning in transportation of food and of other supplies will save labor, fuel, and space by limiting the shipping of supplies over great distances. In order to do our part in this task that is ours, we shall need to forego purchasing materials that are made of food products essential to human nutrition. For example, if more milk is needed for human consumption, we should do our part to see that the part of the milk supply now being used to make cloth or other products not used as food be released as rapidly as possible for human consumption. If Government-owned and operated dairies in and around our Army training camps in certain areas of this country are needed, regardless of other interests, we should be willing to support these dairies.

War and food sharing brings food consciousness and dietary changes. If we are wise, we shall give real thought and effort in trying to make these dietary changes in our country what they should be—changes for good. And if we are to do that, we shall have to recognize the need of nutrition education that will function in our daily living, education that will result in the choice and use of foods three times a day, that will furnish each of us with his share of the specific materials essential to meet his physiological needs.

It is well known that an army fights on its stomach—that wars have been lost and won through food. But it is not well known that each individual's growth and development, successes or failures, and the satisfactions accompanying them depend to a marked extent upon the food he eats and the way his body uses that food. It is significant that in this country, as in Britain, at the time we entered the war there was still a large part of our population whose diet was not up to the standard needed for health. We may well ask ourselves why such a condition should exist in this our land of plenty? For years we have had an abundant supply of the foods needed for

optimal nutrition. For years, at least recent years, we have prided ourselves, and justly so, on seeing to it that all our people, those employed and those unemployed, those having limited incomes and those having unlimited incomes, have had opportunity to secure not only enough foods, but enough of the foods that are needed to meet the physiological needs of their bodies.

For years our medical, health, and social-service groups have become increasingly aware of the need of nutrition education in this country. They may not agree wholly as to causal factors for the undesirable nutrition level that exists with too large a part of our population The writer is of the opinion, however, that most of them will put ignorance, dietary habits due to hereditary and environmental influences, indifference due to lack of conviction that the kind of food one eats makes a difference in his well-being, coupled with the lack of courage (which may be due in part at least to food habits) to make the changes, among the chief causal factors.

So convinced are some, in the field of nutrition and health, of the importance of nutrition that from the time we entered this war up to the present, in addition to their full day's work, they have given hours of volunteer service to try to maintain the level of nutrition that was ours at the beginning of the war, and if possible to raise it. Hundreds, indeed maybe thousands, of home-economics trained women, among whom we will find the nutritionists of our country, are meeting the demands of their full-time jobs, be that demand for seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, or even more hours daily, and, in addition to those hours, giving many extra ones as volunteers It is also true of our home-economics teachers in junior and senior high schools who are in the classroom all day and on the food front outside of their classrooms in their communities after teaching hours. Many of our home-economics trained women are now serving on nutrition committees and/or as volunteer teachers of adult classes in nutrition in the evening; some teach as volunteers from one to even three evening classes a week. They have given generously and

gladly and their best service. But when they meet the daily demands of their vigorous, active, stimulating students in their regular classes, they themselves need vigor and vitality. If one is to do the job, teaching nutrition well, one must look and feel the part, for students must go home and to the lunchroom to practise the very things they are being taught. They need nutrition knowledge but they also need the drive to practise what they are learning—this requires teachers not too weary, teachers who are vital individuals who can and who will do inspirational teaching. The classes in the evenings and late afternoons, the adult classes in nutrition which these teachers give as volunteers also need vital teachers if desirable changed nutrition practices in our homes are to be the outcome of such classes. Knowledge is power when it functions. From before birth to death food is important. And during the major part of the span of life the individual does most of the choosing of the foods he eats.

Nutrition is important. From the writer's experience in nutrition education, she questions decidedly whether we are facing this job as we should. Can the education needed now and later be given the place and the attention it warrants by depending to such a marked extent upon our willing volunteers? Is it altogether fair to ask or accept so much of the time of our already fully employed home-economics group? Shall we cease asking for their help? By no manner of means! Let us hold on to them, they are needed. But let us not ask too much of them. Each of us wants the joy of service, but we want to so render service that it can be a joy to us and to those whom we serve. Each of us wants to render service, but in order to give one's best service he needs to maintain his own health and vitality. Let us use the volunteers but let us not ask of them or expect of them that they do the whole job or almost the whole job. Let us give them the help they need.

We are now fully occupied making war materials—ammunition and whatever else we need to win this war. Such materials mean labor and labor must be supplied. This means we shall need to spend

money—labor and production materials are necessarily costly and we must and shall meet the expense. We shall find the money with which to pay our war bills and we shall pay them cheerfully. When we as a people are convinced of a real need, we are wise enough to meet that need even though it may be costly.

If nutrition education that functions is as important as scientific findings are showing it to be in the lives of peoples during wars, in civilization during the periods between wars, and in helping to create a peace after wars so that homes will have some permanency, then we educators have a great responsibility now and later. We have a real task to do on our food and nutrition front in this country. And even though doing this task, meeting our responsibility, means getting and wisely spending money for finding out what is the right way to teach nutrition that functions, and so teaching it in our elementary schools and to all our adolescents—not just to some or all of our girls—the task and the responsibility is still ours.

Fortunately, there are school superintendents, principals, and their teaching staffs who have the vision and the courage to face the problems of nutrition in their own schools. We shall all benefit as a result of such vision and courage. In a city school system not more than thirty minutes from New York City a school superintendent and certain members of his teaching group are facing the need of education for better eating and they are making progress. In this city the superintendent, who is chairman of the education committee of the C.D.V.O., and one of the home-economics teachers of the senior high school, who is chairman of the nutrition committee of the same organization, with the help of one of the physical-education teachers and a number of community leaders have been studying ways and means to set in motion functioning nutrition education. The outcomes already attained are gratifying but this is only a beginning. During the spring of 1942, more than three hundred and fifty women, parents of the children in the elementary schools, organized through the block plan for nutrition instruction,

A class of more than one hundred leaders was taught and these leaders were instrumental in the block plan School lunches were established in two schools; a consumer research center was opened and has rendered vital service to the community, especially in meeting nutrition needs. This fall the program has been further extended —an extension course for teachers, Nutrition in Action, was organized and is still under way The teachers taking this course are working on nutrition teaching procedures for their own classes. They are taking the lead in advancing nutrition education through the children in the schools, especially the elementary schools. More than fifteen hundred individuals -adults—have secured nutrition instruction up to the present in the city of which this is written. In this city, the home-economics teachers were willing to volunteer and they have volunteered for some work, but they and their community have carried the major part of their educational program through well-trained nutritionists who have been paid for their services. The superintendent of the city schools asked for assistance from the Home-Economics Department of the School of Education of New York University and secured the services of the curriculum director of students majoring in foods and nutrition, who served as consultant in nutrition

The principal of one of the high schools in New York City is also contributing to our knowledge in ways and means to develop worthwhile nutrition education He too is a man of unusual vision He and his staff consider their school a community center The enrollment in that school is about two thousand students—all boys The principal conceived the idea of education centered around the lunchroom The teachers in charge of this program are all able leaders The work is being centered around science, economics, and accounting with the lunchroom serving as a laboratory where changes in food habits can be reflected The dietitian is a vital part of this program. The principal of this school also obtained guidance in developing this program If we are to share our knowledge in nutrition,

which is one of the most important parts of our sharing on the food and nutrition front, we shall need help, real help for the volunteers who have already given of themselves so freely. We shall need to spend the money necessary to secure well-qualified nutritionists, educators who can take the responsibility that a full-time person, one delegated to a job, can and should take. From the writer's point of view, our great need now is more and more such trained personnel with whom the home-economics group already fully occupied in communities can work. We need more educators—school superintendents, principals, home-economics teachers, lunchroom managers who are well trained in nutrition, physicians and dentists, physical educators, nurses, elementary teachers, secondary teachers other than home economics, parents and other city leaders, especially boards of education—who have the vision and the courage needed to study the nutrition needs in their communities, and regardless of expense see to it that the communities they represent have the trained nutritionists necessary on their food and nutrition fronts. Through wise planning for that front and able and honest evaluations of results, we may then have the beginning of nutrition education for all. We now know such education is essential for war and for the peace to follow in order to enable each of us to develop his fullest inherited capacity for health, physical and mental fitness. Will this pay? There is but one answer to this question: try it and find out!

RECENT SOURCE MATERIALS

Office of Defense, Health and Welfare

Nutrition News Letters.

The Road to Good Nutrition. Price 15 cents

Eat Right to Work and Win.

Office of Price Administration

Send for bibliographies and free materials, such as, "The Consumer and the War," a Study Outline; "Wise Buying in Wartime Series."

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL *may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send in at once to the editor of this department titles, and where possible descriptions, of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in fields of interest kindred to educational sociology.*

CONSUMER EDUCATION STUDY

Following a series of conferences extending over a year's time, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals at San Francisco in February 1942 approved a proposal of its Planning Committee that it undertake a three-year study of consumer education. To support this study the National Better Business Bureau raised a substantial sum of money and turned it over to the Association to use in any ways that it sees fit.

Consumer education began to be recognized as an important part of general education during the depression, and this recognition has been intensified during the war emergency However, in approving this study, the Association sees that consumer education will also be important, both for the individual and for the nation, after peace is restored.

In charge of the study is an administrative committee composed of Thomas H Briggs, chairman; Francis L Bacon, of the Evanston Township High School; Paul E. Elicker, executive secretary of the Association; Virgil M. Hardin, of the Pipkin-Reed Junior High Schools, Springfield, Missouri, and John E. Wellwood, of the Flint, Michigan, High School. At a meeting of the committee it elected Dr Briggs director of the consumer education study and authorized the establishment of headquarters in the National Education Association Building in Washington, D C The work began formally in September 1942 Dr. Fred T. Wilhelms, previously with the University of Nebraska, has been selected as an assistant director The staff will be enlarged as the study proceeds. The present plan is not to have a large staff in Washington, but rather to use many people in the field for cooperative help on studies that will contribute to the major project.

It is proposed to ask a number of competent men and women representing education, labor, business, agriculture, and consumers to serve as advisers, to whom problems will from time to time be submitted. It is also proposed to coöperate with existing organizations that are already interested in consumer education.

The major question that the study will attempt to answer is what education do youth, of every status and location, need in order that they may become more intelligent consumers under our prevailing economic conditions Ultimately it is hoped that the study will furnish the secondary schools a series of curriculum units, with annotated bibliographies and evaluated lists of available materials. These units will be planned for use either in an independent course in consumer education or as parts of other courses in home economics, business education, science, social studies, or other departments. Some of the units will be especially useful for homeroom discussions.

Exploratory studies and numerous interviews have already shown that of the people who have hitherto been concerned with consumer education, many fall into two general classes: some who wish to use the schools for promoting interests of business, and some who wish to use the schools to reform the economic structure of our society The committee in charge of the proposed study is carefully guarding against lending itself to advance the interests of any business enterprise; on the other hand, it does not conceive its function to be the reform of our economic structure The study is endeavoring to aid the schools in their effort to make youth more intelligent, conscientious, and effective consumers in the society in which they live. It is hoped that consumer education will do more than give to individuals information that will lead to their getting more for their money; it should also help them to acquire a sound understanding of the fundamental principles of economics so that their purchases will be not only most profitable to themselves but also contribute to the maintenance of sound business and the long-run best interests of all.

Realizing the necessity of working in close coöperation with the schools, the committee has sent out a short questionnaire to get some basic information and also to accumulate a list of names of teachers and administrators who are especially interested in consumer education As soon as returns are received the director will be ready to lay before those who are interested and willing to coöperate a series of proposals for their criticism and constructive help.

The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

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EDITORIAL

We are living in the days of a new creation. Once again in human history the plow of destruction is in the ground. Ancient trails of the tribes are being torn up. Old barriers are lifted by giant machines or by-passed by technology. New roads are built for soldiers to travel—roads by sea, and by land, and by air. So prodigious is the scale of this new creation that tomorrow the remotest habitation will be on the only main highway that leads everywhere, the air. Distance shrinks in terms of time, and time brings every neighborhood into one worldhood.

With the banishment of isolation, people need and seek new knowledge. The war presents education with a great opportunity.

As in the case of the military roads of the Roman Empire, when the wars are over, educators, missionaries, traders, adventurers will travel where armies of destruction and construction once marched. What will be the educational philosophy of our new creation with regard to intercultural relations?

Will the religious missionaries translate their primary commandment *to love* into the infinitive *to understand?* If they do, then intercultural understanding will become a scientific ambition which will revolutionize human relations. Religion will make for brotherhood.

Will educators relate their basic job-concept, *growth in appreciation of what is true, beautiful, good, and righteous,* to ethnic rela-

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tions? If they do, then schools will fulfill their duty to equip youth intellectually and emotionally to establish one earth indivisible, with liberty and justice for all mankind. Education will make for brotherhood.

Will all the learning agencies in addition to formal schools *"learn" people?* That is, will homes, clubs, youth agencies, veterans' posts, theaters, and the press teach people like you and me about all the other people catapulted by the new creation into *our* society? That will make for brotherhood.

Will traders—all of the idea people, the makers, the carriers, the exchangers, and the consumers—will each of us respect the dignity and the rights of every personality of every other nation, color, and religion, wherever we meet on the global highway of the new creation? Then economics will make for brotherhood.

Finally, will the politicians who are curious about the new creation emerging in this war be sensitive to the climate of opinion, the common sentiments for political confederation of the family of man? Statesmen can give structure to world brotherhood.

What is brotherhood? Brotherhood is giving to others the rights we want to keep ourselves. This is no mere sentimentalism of the new creation. It is practical. It is common sense. It is terribly demanding. White people cannot long keep any dignities and rights they will not share with "colored" peoples. Americans, Britishers, and others in the United Nations cannot long keep any liberties which they prevent other nations from giving to their citizens. A Protestant, a Catholic, or a Jew cannot expect people to take the pains to understand him, and fight for his religious freedom, unless he will sympathetically appreciate citizens of another religion and grant freedom of conscience to others.

The new creation is bringing the dawn of the realization among plain people of the earth that brotherhood is a law of the universe as dependable as gravity, and from which humans cannot escape. The denial of it issues in race riots, religious feuds, and international war

The observance of it leads to a creative, a dynamic peace. Tension and conflict shall continue. The spirit of the law of brotherhood can keep the role of rivalry and competition within reasonable bounds, this side of overt hostility. Moreover, as differentiation and specialization in skills and occupations develop with our maturing civilization, interdependence becomes increasingly important. A sense of brotherhood—*giving to others the appreciation one wants for oneself*—is a fundament of that interdependence.

This issue of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY is designed to illuminate the problems of intergroup relations and to provide materials for their solution. The NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHRISTIANS AND JEWS is distributing it as one contribution to the fulfillment of the hope of a better world that is to be.

EVERETT ROSS CLINCHY

APPROXIMATE TRAVELING TIME *as you have known it in the past and as you will know it in the Air Age.*

From	*To*	*Surface Time*	*Air Time*
New York	Chungking, China	31 days	38 hours
New York	Moscow, Russia	8 days	23 hours
New York	London, England	5 days	17 hours
San Francisco	Brisbane, Australia	21 days	35 hours
Chicago	Fairbanks, Alaska	8 days	14 hours

THE PURPOSE AND PROGRAM OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHRISTIANS AND JEWS

Thoughtful people today are studying the possible structure of earthwide relationships of all peoples. Educators are thinking about the best procedures to build attitudes and sentiments commensurate with the demands of an all-inclusive world society. Some specialists are at work on economic factors, others on political considerations; still others on local civic problems, the world around. One job, fundamental to all others, is the spiritual task. While the traditional religious bodies are at work creating a new world consciousness among their own members, some people must pay attention to intergroup relations among all citizens who have a spiritual concern. That is the task of the National Conference of Christians and Jews in the United States, and similar interfaith conferences on other continents.

For 15 years the National Conference of Christians and Jews has mobilized historians, anthropologists, sociologists, economists, philosophers, and educators to aid in defining the problem The Conference has enlisted leaders in every community organization to discover what contribution their groups can make. The Conference has brought face to face Protestants, Catholics, and Jews, 250,000 times, not only to encourage them to think, but to condition them emotionally to friendly coöperation.

The Conference has never sought to make the Conference an end in itself. Rather, the object has always been to present its main idea to persons and to other institutions with the plea that they work it out in their own ways.

What is the main idea? The idea is brotherhood, giving to others the same rights and dignities each group wants to keep for itself.

The National Conference of Christians and Jews was organized in 1928 by Charles Evans Hughes, Newton D. Baker, S. Parkes Cadman, and others, to promote justice, amity, and coöperation among

Protestants, Catholics, and Jews. Since that time it has used sound educational methods to make friendliness and coöperation among religious groups a national habit, a folkway of American life. The present co-chairmen of the Board of Trustees are Dr Arthur H. Compton, Mr. Roger W. Straus, and Ambassador Carlton J. H. Hayes. Everett R. Clinchy is president of the administrative staff, and Willard Johnson is his assistant.

The National Conference program at present consists of the following aspects:

1. A commission on education works with schools and colleges. One subcommittee specializes in religious education, both in the analysis of good and bad effects of lesson materials on human relations, and production of new lesson materials

2. Locally, committees or "round tables" of Protestants, Catholics, and Jews are the basic work units of the Conference. The manual for round tables lists a subcommittee on education to be made up of professional educators.

3. The Conference holds few meetings itself because it prefers to service already existing groups with programs. Triologues consisting of clergymen or laymen of the three faiths, or single speakers for "readymade" audiences, carry the Conference message. Thus programs are offered to schools, colleges, women's clubs, service clubs, trade unions, veterans' organizations, youth groups, farm groups, forums, churches, and other community groups. Several thousand speakers from all parts of the nation participate regularly in these programs on the theme of the American idea of mutual respect and coöperation among diverse groups.

4. A commission on religious organizations coöperates with church and synagogue groups.

5 Brotherhood Week, during the week of Washington's Birthday, is the climax of the year's program observed in several thousand communities.

6. Radio programs of religious news and forum discussions are

carried by 110 stations each week. Spot and occasional broadcasts according to seasons are featured.

7. An extensive program is now in operation in the military training camps of the nation in coöperation with military officials and chaplains. Speaking programs, literature, and motion pictures are employed in this activity.

8 Religious News Service, sponsored by the Conference, is an objective religious news gathering and distributing agency. Its service extends to more than 300 newspapers and journals and to 80 radio stations. It is the only interfaith religious news agency in existence.

9 A project in revising teaching materials of religious and public schools to eliminate passages conducive to prejudice and to prepare materials to promote good will and respect among religious and racial groups has been in operation for several years.

10. Conference media, in addition to speaking programs, radio, and religious news service, are motion pictures, books, and pamphlets. Scores of articles are placed annually in magazines and journals. Samples are available at headquarters, 381 Fourth Avenue.

In programs for community groups the Conference gives special attention to interfaith relations while in schools and colleges the Conference urges that the approach be made in the broader intercultural setting. This is done to avoid duplication in the school program and to employ the methods which are educationally sound, in that various aspects of intergroup relations are approached as an integrated problem of democratic living.

"AMERICA" IS A MAGIC NAME

LOUIS ADAMIC

America is many things: a system of government; a compromise; a promise; an experience in continuous revolution; a practicable way of living; an idea and a dream. It embodies the highest, most mature concept of human relations yet devised

The first formal document of the United States of America affirmed that "all men are created equal," that governments derive "their just powers from the consent of the governed." The document ended: "for the support of this Declaration . . . we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor."

Fourscore and seven years later Lincoln reaffirmed the principles of American democracy: "We here highly resolve . . . that government of the people, by the people, for the people shall not perish from the earth."

Fourscore less two years later still, Roosevelt reinterpreted the concept of democracy: "In the future days which we seek to make secure, we look forward to a world founded upon four essential human freedoms" (of expression and worship, from want and fear).

America has a special connection with the rest of the world. Not only is she a federation of states, but a nation of nations, related by blood to almost every other country on earth. In her 48 States dwell people of nearly 60 different racial, religious, and national backgrounds. Over one third of her population has come, in the first, second, or third generation, from other lands The unprecedented scope of this experiment in living together with relatively little friction has given the United States a unique status. To millions of the

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Louis Adamic is an American author of Slovenian birth who has long been interested in the various and complex developments in American life which stem from the great diversity of its population Author of such widely read books as *From Many Lands* and *Two-Way Passage* and a number of other volumes, Mr Adamic has recently published *What Is Your Name?* which deals with the problems faced by millions whose names are difficult for the American tongue

oppressed throughout the world "America" is a magic name; it is paradise come true on earth.

America is the work of many hands. She is a young country in years and in vigor. The continuous blood transfusions, seething and surging and mingling, and adding new impetus to the development of the American way of life, hold out a tremendous promise for the future of a world that is drawing together and toward internationalism The young move in the stream of the present, their muscles are active and resilient, their eyes turn forward. Only those who believe in the future can build it; and today's dreams have always been tomorrow's facts

But America is not all promise. Among 130 million people are many who cling to the past, who see of the present only the imperfections, who fear and resent the future. We are still hampered by prejudice, by xenophobia, racism, isolationism, and "class" distinctions. There is still a psychological civil war: white versus black; Occidental versus Oriental; Gentile versus Jew; Protestant versus Catholic; old-stock versus new-stock; and standardized uniformity versus unity within diversity. The common denominator is this: essential human hierarchy versus essential human equality.

Beneath the surface we are pulling in two directions, but I do not believe our strength is equally divided. Nor do I believe the gloomy picture is the true one. Some one has recently said that it has always been America's misfortune to be measured against the ideal rather than against existing or past systems of society. The sum total of America points to a new and more complete approximation of that ideal. As Lincoln said: "Why should there not be a patient confidence in the ultimate justice of the people? Is there any better or equal hope in the world?"

"E PLURIBUS UNUM" AND THE CULTURES OF DEMOCRACY

H. M. KALLEN

There is an issue of human relations which is as old as mankind and as inveterate as thought. Philosophers call it "the problem of the One and the Many" and find it also the basic problem of existence. Humanly, however, it is the problem of how people who are different from each other shall live together with each other. It is the critical problem of each personal life, of each race, sect, sex, occupational group, political party, sovereign state, and religious establishment.

The history of mankind indicates two major ways of solving this problem, ways that recur, with variations, in philosophy and the other arts and sciences as well as in more "practical" affairs.

The first and by far the older and more prevalent way is to deny all rights to the *different.* Some primitives utterly extirpate the different; others make them one with themselves by eating them; others by attaching their heads or scalps to their own persons or possessions; still others by degrading the different to slavery—in Aristotle's words, to the status of a tool with life in it More advanced societies have employed enslavement more than slaughter, though they have always countered disobedience or nonconformity with the threat of death Their elite have been conquerors; their ideal has been total unity achieved by warfare and imposed by victory, a unity in which every part draws its existence, its meaning, and its value from the one absolute, indivisible sovereign whole. Under this unity, that only can be true which the sovereign says is true—the different

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H M Kallen is Professor of Philosophy and Psychology and lecturer on the philosophy of education in the Graduate Faculty of Political and Social Science of the New School for Social Research He is author of a number of volumes including *Culture and Democracy in the United States* which first brought the concept of cultural pluralism into public discussion Dr Kallen was closely associated with the late William James who left his unfinished work for Dr Kallen to edit

is heresy, error, or infidelity; that only can be right which the sovereign says is right—the different is immorality, sin, or treason. Under its doctrine and discipline, to be different is to be evil and to merit either punishment or destruction.

Since all nature breeds and multiplies differences, differences come into existence willy-nilly—different species, different peoples, different communities with different economies, different faiths, different cultures, and different ways of life and living. The mere existence of these differents is a denial of the claims and a challenge to the rule of those who speak on behalf of a One, sole, exclusive, sovereign authority. Such an authority, consequently, be it political, ecclesiastical, economic, or what have you, is compelled in the nature of things to spend much of its force in suppressing or destroying the different, especially that which makes rival claims to unique sovereignty. As the enemy of difference, such authority is also the enemy of freedom, since freedom lives and moves and has its being in the right to be different. It wages a permanent war against freedom.

The doctrine and discipline of the Nazis and the Japanese are today's most sadistocratic embodiment of this warfare against freedom, this undertaking of those who would impose their One to destroy or to enslave those who acknowledge and respect the equal liberty of the Many.

The second way of resolving the problem of the One and the Many starts in such acknowledgment and respect. We call it the democratic way. Its device is *E pluribus unum*. Its doctrine is stated by the Declaration of Independence, its discipline by the Constitution. The living faith that sustains doctrine and discipline does not require the submergence or subordination of the different; it requires the coöperation or teamplay of the different on equal terms. The unity of the democratic way is a *union* that emerges from and consists in this teamplay. It takes form as a free association, and it rules not as a sovereign imposing its authority from without and

above, but as a servant receiving its authority from within and beneath. Living, in such a federal union, is characterized by the fact that no relation in it is rigid, fixed, compulsive. Individuals and associations of individuals, each different from the others, live together with the others in such a way that all may enjoy the freest possible movement, the greatest possible initiative. They form an *open* society, in which hindrances to free communications are at a minimum, and the process of free communication on all levels—economic, religious, aesthetic, scientific, and political—constitutes the bond of union between the different communicants.

An educated man is distinguished from an ignoramus, a tolerant man from an intolerant, a man of culture from a barbarian, and a free man from a servile one by his desire for and training in free communication with the different. Among free men, the entire purpose of education is mastery of the means and methods of free communication. Such a mastery is, and always has been, culture; and it measures any person's readiness to live and to grow in a civilization that is naturally a cultural pluralism and that takes the fact of this pluralism as the basic material of its cultural ideal.

It is for the survival of such a civilization of cultural pluralism as fact and as ideal that we and our allies are today at war. As the United States of America are many communities of peoples bound to each other by free communication into one nation; as the British Commonwealth of Nations are many peoples, the strength of whose bond is measured by the freedom of their association, so are the United Nations. Yellow men, black men, brown men, and red men, as well as white; Confucians, Buddhists, Mohammedans, Parsees, Sikhs, and Bahais and countless other faiths and cultures as well as Judaist, Catholic, and Protestant are joined together as equal soldiers in the war to vindicate the freedom of their manyness against the servitude of the Japanazi oneness. They uphold the spiritual abundance of their Cultural Pluralism against the spiritual scarcity of the foe's monist *Kultur*. They advance the spontaneous orchestra-

tion of the freely cooperating Many against the servile coördination of the foe's regimented One; they pit the strength of the team play of a Federal Union against the changing force of a sovereign unity.

Cultural Pluralism thus defines both the material and the spiritual intent of the four freedoms. It is both the means and the goal of a way of life for whose survival and growth American history has been an unceasing struggle. Today it embodies the form of those freedoms that are the hope of all the world.

CULTURAL DEMOCRACY IN WAR AND PEACE

STEWART G. COLE

DEMOCRACY

No person, group, or nation lives unto itself; each is involved in dynamic relations with others. Hence, the rights of the one imply certain responsibilities of the many, and vice versa. Such a society, whether small or large, must, if it is to remain democratic, necessarily employ a method of "checks and balances." If not, the persistent aggressiveness of some one of the group may lead to a dominance over the rest which crushes the initiative of the many. Or, assertiveness may be so varied and so strong as to result in disunity and disintegration. In either case, democracy breaks down, giving place to some form of either dictatorship or social license.

It follows, therefore, that a democracy to be effective must ensure the practice of freedom *and* authority, privilege *and* obligation, individualism (regard for the individual) *and* collectivism (regard for the group as a working whole)—with either member of each pair limited in its action by the other of that pair. Thus only can the society achieve the greatest measure of vitality and integration, and

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its members enjoy the maximum of basic human satisfactions. The paired factors of give and take thus involved in a democratic society may strain to the utmost the resources of personality but, when properly cultivated, they guarantee the most enriching experiences of life. Indeed, democracy is the only kind of society in which the real worth of the personality of every individual can be adequately developed. The instrument to spread such a practice of democracy is human intelligence acting through popular education.

CULTURAL DEMOCRACY[1]

The term "cultural democracy" suggests the application of the principles of democracy to an association of cultures or subcultures. By culture is meant the inclusive social structure and the socially achieved genius by which a people choose to express their way of life. The United Nations are fighting the present war so that democratic relations may eventually be introduced among all the world's peoples and cultures. This is the source of hope for an enduring peace among the nations. Democracy cannot be imposed upon unwilling peoples, but the leaven of democracy at work among the United Nations can in the end and must, we believe, affect favorably the minds of the peoples of the Axis powers so that they will desire to live as good neighbors. The far-reaching implications of this approach to internationalism and world-mindedness in terms of the checkered relations which obtain among world cultures and peoples need to be implemented in a forthright manner. The situation presents a primary challenge to every individual, culture group, and nation which will participate in the era of postwar reconstruction.

Cultural democracy is also a domestic problem of the American people. The United States is a composite population more or less united in national purpose. The diversity of culture groups in our

[1] This subject is developed in William E. Vickery and Stewart G. Cole, *Intercultural Education in American Schools: Proposed Objectives and Methods* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943), Chapter II.

midst reflects varying racial, religious, ethnic, socio-economic, and regional distinctions. These subcultures are due to old-world traditions transplanted and accommodated, and to special group and community experiments of an indigenous nature carried forward over a period of years. While the process of Americanization has contributed, on the one hand, to the breakdown of many social differences, and, on the other, to the nurture of commanding loyalties and interests that tend to unify all groups, it is literally impossible and socially undesirable to attempt to level the behavior of all our peoples until they think, feel, and act alike. Such a leveling policy, if adopted generally, would through lack of stimulating variety lead to a decadent condition of society. On the other hand, to encourage unlimited expressionism of culture groups is to yield to the opposite extreme in social control. The American people must learn to respect and encourage meritorious cultural differences, while at the same time ensure the cultivation of over-all purposes and coördination of activities that give unitary vigor to our democracy.

MY AMERICA

LANGSTON HUGHES

This is my land America. Naturally, I love it—it is home—and I am vitally concerned about its mores, its democracy, and its well-being. I try now to look at it with clear, unprejudiced eyes. My ancestry goes back at least four generations on American soil—and, through Indian blood, many centuries more. My background and training is purely American—the schools of Kansas, Ohio, and the East. I am old stock as opposed to recent immigrant blood.

Yet many Americans who cannot speak English—so recent is their arrival on our shores—may travel about the country at will

Langston Hughes is a noted American Negro poet and writer. He is a member of the Advisory Committee of the Writers War Board. His recent song *Freedom Road* (music by Emerson Harper) is receiving widespread acclaim

securing food, hotel, and rail accommodations wherever they wish to purchase them. I may not. These Americans, once naturalized, may vote in Mississippi or Texas, if they live there. I may not. They may work at whatever job their skills command. But I may not. They may purchase tickets for concerts, theaters, lectures wherever they are sold throughout the United States. I may not. They may repeat the Oath of Allegiance with its ringing phrase of "liberty and justice for all," with a deep faith in its truth—as compared to the limitations and oppressions they have experienced in the Old World. I repeat the oath, too, but I know that the phrase about "liberty and justice" does not fully apply to me. I am an American—but I am a colored American.

I know that all these things I mention are not *all* true for *all* localities *all* over America. Jim Crowism varies in degree from North to South, from the mixed schools and free franchise of Michigan to the tumbledown colored schools and open terror at the polls of Georgia and Mississippi. All over America, however, against the Negro there has been an economic color line of such severity that since the Civil War we have been kept most effectively, as a racial group, in the lowest economic brackets. Statistics are not needed to prove this. Simply look around you on the Main Street of any American town or city. There are no colored clerks in any of the stores—although colored people spend their money there. There are practically never any colored street-car conductors or bus drivers—although these public carriers run over streets for which we pay taxes. There are no colored girls at the switchboards of the telephone company—but millions of Negroes have phones and pay their bills. Even in Harlem, nine times out of ten, the man who comes to collect your rent is white. Not even that job is given a colored man by the great corporations owning New York real estate. From Boston to San Diego, the Negro suffers from job discrimination.

Yet America is a land where, in spite of its defects, I can write this article Here the voice of democracy is still heard—Roosevelt, Wal-

lace, Willkie, Agar, Pearl Buck, Paul Robeson. America is a land where the poll tax still holds in the South but opposition to the poll tax grows daily. America is a land where lynchers are not yet caught—but Bundists are put in jail, and majority opinion condemns the Klan. America is a land where the best of all democracies has been achieved for some people—but in Georgia, Roland Hayes, world-famous singer, is beaten for being colored and nobody is jailed—nor can Mr. Hayes vote in the State where he was born. Yet America is a country where Roland Hayes *can* come from a log cabin to wealth and fame—in spite of the segment that still wishes to maltreat him physically and spiritually, famous though he is.

This segment, however, is not all of America. If it were, millions of Negroes would have no heart for this war in which we are now engaged. If it were, we could see no difference between our ideals and Hitler's, in so far as our own dark lives are concerned. But we know, on the other hand, that America is a land in transition. And we know it is within our power to help in its further change toward a finer and better democracy than any citizen has known before. The American Negro believes in democracy. We want to make it real, complete, workable, not only for ourselves—the thirteen million dark ones—but for all Americans all over the land.

THE STRUGGLE FOR STATUS

W. LLOYD WARNER

(*Editor's note.* Dr. Warner's analysis of the social movements seeking equal status for Negroes offers constructive implications for organizations seeking improvement in Christian-Jewish, Occidental-Oriental, and nationality group relationships. He warns against the limitations of political action, tactics of escape to new lands and utopias, and sole reliance on self-improvement by any single group.)

Since Emancipation hundreds of organizations and a great variety of social movements have struggled for equal status for the

American Negro. Despite the number and heterogeneity of groups they have all been guided with but four basic ideologies. Several organizations have urged the Negro to flee from his present trouble and seek a better world elsewhere. Marcus Garvey's "Back to Africa" movement is an example of this general theory of escape from the harsh social realities of inferior status. Since the time of Booker T. Washington large numbers of Negroes have been advocates of the belief in reform in the Negro status structure. Self-help for each meant advancement for all. The third type of organization, expressed in the beliefs and practices of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, demands the reorganization of the basic American Negro-white status structure. Its adherents believe that complete equality of freedom of choice in all of the Negroes' activities can only be achieved by destroying all the social barriers which confine the Negro to his caste-like position in American life. The fourth basic ideology conceives of the fight for Negro social freedom as something more than national in its scope for full equality is only to be gained by lifting the status levels of all depressed peoples and nations everywhere. The recent utterances of Wendell Willkie and Vice-President Wallace are better known examples of this modern tendency in the struggle for equality. The insistence among Negroes that the Atlantic Charter must be world-wide and include the darker races everywhere is not mere altruism but the expression of a realization that the ranking of the Negro in American society is dependent in part on the ranking of all dark-skinned people wherever they may be.

Let us examine each belief in more detail Since the time of slavery, many Negroes have believed that it was futile to try to improve the status of the Negro in the American social system and that wisdom demanded escape to other lands or other worlds. The establishment of the Liberian Republic was a practical result of such

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yearnings. The escape ideology has played a more powerful role among those Negroes who look forward to a time when God will bring Heaven to earth and abolish the "wicked" racial barriers. Such Negroes think only of preparing their souls for the world to come; by so doing they escape the bitter realities of present frustration. This largely unrealistic approach in the escapist movement gets no approval from most present-day educated Negroes.

Before analyzing and evaluating the other ideologies it will be necessary to discover just what is meant by the inferior status of the Negro. Only then can we determine whether the ideas and activities of the various movements are realistic and articulated to the problem of lifting him from his present subordinate rank to one of equality with the whites.

The Negro and European immigrants are commonly referred to as minority groups and often considered as one class of deprived peoples. This is a serious misconception. The European ethnic is biologically the same as the white American and culturally different; the Negro is biologically different and culturally the same. The ethnic cultural characteristics become symbols of low status, as do the Negro's racial traits. Members of the first group can change their cultural traits and thereby lose the symbols of inferior rank, but the Negro's biological traits cannot be changed. Once a Negro always a Negro. The visible racial trait as a biological fact cannot be changed, but its use as a symbol of inferiority can be The problem is how to do it. We can now return to the three remaining ideologies of the reform movements

When Lincoln freed the slaves and later when the Fifteenth Amendment was passed and similar laws were added to the State constitutions, their proponents were acting on the belief that it was necessary to change the total structure which organized the relations between whites and Negroes. Political action, it was then held, could solve the problem The disillusionment from the failure of the efforts to legislate equality into the relations of Negroes and whites

led to a reaction which resulted in the promulgation of the theory of self-improvement. Booker T. Washington and his followers were convinced that reform could only come through the Negro's forgetting his fight for freedom in the larger society and concentrating on improving himself. To advance himself he needed good jobs; to get them, he needed education. If the Negro group as a whole were properly educated better jobs at higher levels would automatically advance the Negroes' status and increase the respect of the whites. Along this path equality was to be found.

This faith, largely adopted by most organizations, such as foundations since Washington's time, has resulted in very definite advancement within the Negro group. The former undifferentiated mass of rural proletarians has produced a sizable number of doctors, lawyers, ministers, editors, educators, and business men. A hundred Negro colleges, aided by white universities, have graduated twenty-thousand Negroes, and the once illiterate mass is becoming educated. Countless other advances within the group could be cited. The accelerated advancement has produced Negro upper, middle, and lower classes which are very much like the equivalent white groups. Despite the achievement of at least some of the goals set by the advocates of the doctrines of self-improvement the resulting social equality has not followed. A Negro doctor, with all the behavior characteristics of a "southern gentleman," is still a Negro and still inferior in status and accordingly deprived. He may be superior in class status to a poor white, but he is inferior in caste.

The present war has contributed to the popularity of the fourth approach. The great success of Japan has dispelled the popular fallacy of the dark race being unequal to the whites in the struggle for power; and the increasing importance of China and India and Asiatic Russia has added weight to the realization that the dark races are our equals. For Americans to adjust themselves to this world of tomorrow they must be ready to admit this or suffer severe handicaps in attempting to compete. The lessons we are learning at

such a high price about "racial inferiority" in our war with Japan will need to be remembered by us when they and the other dark-skinned nations become our peacetime competitors. The existence of "race prejudice" in America predisposes us to carrying this no-longer-adaptive belief to our dealings with other peoples.

Heretofore the Christian belief in the equality of all men in the sight of God, and the secular democratic belief that all men are created equal, fortified by the scientific evidence that Negroes are not biologically or psychologically inferior, have fought winning battles against the American status system which assigns Negroes to an inferior role; but they have not won the war, nor with only the use of the older tactics is victory in sight.

The present strategy of those who fight for freedom and equality for the American Negro is likely to be a combination of the ideology of the reorganization of the American Negro-white status system with the international improvement of the colored races. Most rapid advancement can be made by educating Americans to realize that the inferior role of the colored races in many countries is over, that our treatment of our own dark-skinned races is no longer adaptive in our competition with all other nations, and that it behooves us as sensible men to make the necessary adjustments. When the American whites learn it is against their own interests to subordinate Negroes, there will be basic rearrangements in our status system.

CONFLICT AREAS IN AMERICAN INTERCULTURAL LIFE

WILLIAM HEARD KILPATRICK

Four main areas of discrimination and conflict in the intercultural life of our country demand attention here: (1) social; (2) political; (3) economic; and (4) religious. A word or two about each may better locate and define the pertinent conflicts.

1. *Social discrimination.* This is the widespread tendency to shut out certain groups—Negroes, Jews, Japanese, and recent south European immigrants—from full participation in the shared affairs of social life. While for example the public roads, at one extreme, are open without discrimination to all, in the matter of hotels, schools, and place of residence more or less of segregation is likely. The extreme of exclusion is found perhaps in formal marriage, and accordingly in those social gatherings ordinarily likely to result in marriage.

2. *Political disqualification.* While the national Constitution, at least as popularly interpreted, expects the unrestricted suffrage of all normal citizens of 21 years and over, it is nonetheless true that in a number of States various devices are used to limit the effective voting of Negroes and also of the lowest economic level irrespective of race.

3. *Economic discrimination.* In most parts of the country certain groups, especially Negroes, Japanese, Mexicans, Jews, and Catholics, find it harder than others to gain admittance to the more desirable occupations. Other things being equal, old-stock Protestants have herein an outstanding advantage.

4. *Religious prejudice.* Overlapping with, and underlying the foregoing, there appears throughout our country more or less of prejudice against certain religious groups, especially Catholics, Jews, and Jehovah's Witnesses

It next seems possible to name certain factors whose presence must account for the foregoing instances of discrimination and conflict.

1. *Tribal perversions of we-group attitudes.* Each person by ordinary experience forms various "we-groups," groups of which he says and feels "we." In these groups he feels a security and an athomeness not elsewhere found, and, conversely, with regard to out-

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siders he feels both insecurity and antagonism. If fear also enters, the greater the fear, the greater the sense of insecurity and the more violent the antagonism.

In the old tribal life antagonism to the outsider was extreme, even morality held only within the tribe. So now with many who, having failed to grow properly, think "tribally" and so hate outsiders in the degree of their strangeness. It is this tribal version of the we-group attitude, generally accentuated by fear, which most explains the discriminations and conflicts found under the four heads named above.

2. *Human exploitation.* In every age and clime certain men strategically placed by birth or contrivance have exploited others to the advantage of the one and the disadvantage of the other. Slavery was an extreme instance. Feudalism was an organization of various degrees of caste. Wage slavery and the would-be caste treatment of the Negroes are modern current instances.

3. *Cultural lag.* The culture, as the accumulation of race-wrought learnings put socially to use, is the foundation fact to explain the advance of civilization over primitive savagery. But outmoded elements get preserved along with the rest. This cultural lag best explains many of the surviving human exploitations. The dead hand of slavery still supplies much of the anti-Negro discrimination, as does the dead hand of past Jewish persecution supply most of the current anti-Semitism.

4. *Failure of communication.* As it is the full two-way process of intercourse and communication which best leads the we-group attitude properly to expand and thus include those hitherto excluded, so is it the failure thus to achieve full intercourse and communication that most explains the harmful tribal perversions discussed above. Both sides can fail here. The minority group may so exclude itself from full communication as hurtfully to aggravate exclusion. The dominant is, however, in most cases the chief sinner. Feeling assured of their status, they express their thoughts and feelings

freely before others. The minority group is less assured and so tends to suppress particularly its resentment at condescension. It is mutual social intercourse, shared efforts, and full two-way communication that must prevent and negate these inadequate and perverse we-attitudes and antagonisms.

Along with these four causative factors go certain unjustified habits of thinking, devised we may believe, as defense mechanisms to uphold one in doing what he otherwise might be compelled in conscience to denounce.

1. *The doctrine of innate racial inferiority.* To believe that there are innate racial differences of mental and moral character would help to justify one in his hurtful tribal attitudes and in his human exploitation. But the present dominant trend in scientific thinking is to deny such innate social differences and accordingly to deny, for example, that the Negro is natively inferior to the white race. Group differences do at present exist, but all such we now believe result exactly from group lack of cultural opportunity.

2. *General ascription of evil traits.* There is a frequent but unjustified tendency to generalize the evil deed of a particular Negro or Jew and attribute it as a trait to the whole group. If, however, we of the dominant group observe a like evil deed in one of us, we blame the individual and absolve the group. Such unjustified thinking is the joint result of limited acquaintance and bad logic.

3. *Selective attention.* Along with both the foregoing goes the fact of selective attention. In the degree that one is ignorant and narrow, in like degree will he tend to fasten attention upon the evil deeds of a group he dislikes and ignore the good.

As now, in conclusion, we face the situation of conflict areas thus analyzed, what is the prognosis? Which factors are controlled and how? For the coming decade what is the outlook?

The answer, we can feel sure, depends, on the one hand, on the question of insecurity and fear and, on the other, on the positive operation of mutual intercourse, shared effort, and full two-way

communication. If world and domestic affairs can go well, so that insecurity and fear both political and economic can markedly decrease, then can cordial efforts at mutual intercourse, shared enterprise, and full communication promise great returns. The future has great possibilities.

WHAT IS PREJUDICE?

ALFRED L. SEVERSON

We usually view prejudice as consisting of some bias or erroneous prejudgment that finds expression in many forms of behavior. This view does not bring into clear perception the standard of values that is used in concluding that certain behavior exhibits prejudice, but takes the standard of value as a matter of course.

We are beginning to see that to acquire any understanding of prejudice we must make explicit the standards of value and must see that these standards may shift so that the same behavior may at one time be defined as prejudiced and at another time be held as proper and moral. For example, opposition to women smoking is, in certain groups, no indication of prejudice for there is universal agreement in the group that it is immoral for women to smoke. In other groups, such opposition is considered an indication of prejudice against women smoking. In like manner, we consider anti-Semitism as prejudice, while Hitler in his bitter opposition to Jews claims that he is doing the will of God.

Our conception of race or ethnic prejudice[1] is rooted in a series of dogmas of the rights of man and of the equality of man Any dis-

[1] The term "ethnic prejudice" is preferable to the term "race prejudice" for as Faris remarks ". . . as races are dealt with and as races are disliked, there is little or no connection with the scientific concept of race" Ellsworth Faris, *The Nature of Human Nature* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1937), p. 317

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criminatory treatment against a person because of any group affiliation he may have by virtue of race, religion, or culture is contrary to the dogmas, is a failure to treat each man as a man, and hence is considered as prejudice. These standards of value are in themselves articles of faith not capable of proof. Being articles of faith, they can be narrowed or expanded, as far as their implications are concerned, according to the temper of the times. And a Nazi revolution can go as far as to reverse the traditional western European standards, and in that reversal we have the doctrine of racial inequality struggling to become an accepted moral principle.

Ethnic or race prejudice is not any single thing. It is a general term pointing to behavior by members of one ethnic group toward another ethnic group in the society contrary to the norm that is held for the relations among the groups.

In seeing something of the relation of prejudice to standards of value, we can see that *within* an ethnic group we may find forms of behavior that are not race prejudice but would be when they occur among members of different ethnic groups. In a study of the relation of native-born Negroes in the United States to foreign-born Negroes, Ira De A. Reid states: "Thus there arise within the Negro group distinct forms of prejudices which, if they were not intra-group in nature, might be incorrectly labelled racial prejudices"[8] We can also get some explanation of the puzzling fact that we may continue to maintain prejudices even when we recognize them as such. This fact is not so curious when we perceive the relation of prejudice to shifting standards of value. If John Smith is reared with strong attitudes against women smoking, but now is associated with a group that considers such attitudes as prejudices, he may accept their judgment that he is prejudiced as he sees himself from their point of view, but his feeling that it is wrong for women to smoke may still persist. We can see also how one person may impute prejudice to another which the other vigorously denies. Both may

[8] *The Negro Immigrant* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1939), p. 107

be agreed on the facts of the situation, but they may differ in the norms they apply, or, if they accept the same norm, in the implication of the norm.

If prejudice cannot be understood without seeing its relationship to shifting standards of value, it seems obviously an error to presume that wherever we find prejudice we always find the same attitude. Prejudice is not a unitary thing, a constant attitude that can be studied as such, but consists of a combination of impulses and feelings that vary with the situation. As Blumer says about race prejudice: "Admittedly, the chief feeling in racial prejudice is usually a feeling of dislike or an impulse of aversion; but it is a mistake to regard such a feeling or impulse as the only one, or even necessarily always the main one. Instead, racial prejudice is made up of a variety of feelings and impulses that in different situations enter into the attitude in differing combinations and in differing proportions. Hatred, dislike, resentment, distrust, envy, fear, feelings of obligation, possessive impulses, secret curiosities, sexual interests, destructive impulses, guilt—these are some of the feelings and impulses that may enter into racial prejudice and which in their different combinations give it a differing character. Some of these feelings and impulses may be vivid and easily identified, others are obscure, and still others may be present without their presence being realized."[3]

The virulent antagonism which is buttressed by a bizarre mythology and expresses itself in mob action is a different phenomenon from the exclusion of members of an ethnic group by a polite social club.[4]

Ethnic prejudice in any form does seem to have a common element in that it is directed against the group as a group—against the Negro, John Smith, and not against John Smith who happens to be

[3] Herbert Blumer, "Race Prejudice," *Publications in Social Process*, University of Hawaii

[4] The distinction between anti-Judaism and anti-Semitism made by Maurice Samuel in *The Great Hatred* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1940) is highly to be commended

a Negro. This means that the prejudice is directed against some stereotype, some conception, some abstraction that is conceived as being the "true" picture of the ethnic characteristics and tendencies. In extreme cases, this conception places the ethnic group outside the ordinary range of human nature by characterizing the group as being intermediary between man and animals or as capable of diabolic, inhuman action. In less extreme cases the conception consists of emphasizing traits that are recognized as human but as undesirable or immoral. These conceptions arise out of specific conflict situations as a support in the struggle and, when established, are powerful directives of behavior. They arise out of action and they in turn direct action. Having arisen, they may become enshrined in literature, art, science, and folklore, and, thus perpetuating themselves, they may influence people who have no direct contact with the particular ethnic group.

If we are to understand race prejudice or to deal with race prejudice, we are thus driven to a consideration of specific situations, and types of situations, in which prejudice occurs. These situations usually are very complex, but for purposes of clarity of thought two fundamental types can be distinguished, both of which have had wide consideration. In the one type we find a subordinate group trying to raise its status, the dominant group reacting antagonistically in an effort to keep the subordinate "in its place." In the other type we find the dominant group greatly disturbed over social and economic conditions and in their disturbance, for a variety of reasons, seek some "scapegoat," and center their antagonism against the subordinate group. In the first type the behavior of members of the minority group has a great deal to do with the consequent reaction, while in the second type their behavior is of little or no consequence in producing or averting the antagonism. Other distinctions can be made between the two types of situations and still other types and subtypes need to be distinguished.

If we are perplexed because of the incompleteness of our under-

standing of prejudice, perhaps we may take heart by recognizing that any complete understanding requires some completeness of our knowledge of this queer being which is man and of his society. In the meantime, the present war is forcing us to see that our standards of values have developed in human society and their preservation seems to depend, in part, on the outcome on the field of battle

POLITICAL AND NATIONAL DIVISIONS AS SOURCES OF PREJUDICE

GEORGE N. SHUSTER

The United States is probably able to afford cultural pluralism because it has reached an agreement concerning the language its citizens are to speak. But not a few of us seem to want more uniformity. We tend to divide our neighbors into preferred and inferior groups according to their subsidiary national origins. Every Russian is either a Grand Duke or a Bolshevik; French women are scanned for traces of Madame Pompadour; the Irish are apparently committed to a continuous Battle of the Boyne. When these lines of demarcation coincide with religious or "racial" differences, hostility may wax sharp and bitter. Thus our subsidiary heritages are always potential sources of trouble, though they are also productive of cultural variety and, therefore, of cultural fertility Mr Louis Adamic's image of the "orchestra" which is formed by American folk strains is apt and beautiful, but the orchestra must play together if harmony is to result. As a matter of fact it is often unruly, and it seldom responds to any conductor for very long.

Three methods of control suggest themselves. One might seek to

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root out, through propaganda and education, memories of the ancestral past. This has been tried and, I think, found wanting. National inheritance values, whether these be mores or cultural ideals, are treasured by families, and families are still the basic units of society. Experience seems to indicate that if European tradition is discarded before a sense of identification with the American past has been achieved, the young generation is left with nothing to which it can cling.

Another method of control is proposed by those who believe that the story of the American past will, if properly taught, engender friendliness and mutual enrichment. If we could show to successive generations of youngsters that immigration has been the fundamental part of this nation's experience, we should also be able to demonstrate that our institutions are the work of many hands, and that our national outlook is what it is because every member of the community has added his birthright to the common store. The English hold us in their debt, as do the Germans and the Slovaks, the Norwegians, and the Dutch. I believe in the value of such teaching. The fact that it has been so slow to develop is, however, not attributable merely to the sloth of educators. Our history is difficult to teach because few can dispossess themselves of their preconceptions and become objectively democratic. Perhaps the vital history of which we speak will not be written or expounded until we are a magnanimous people. How many in the South are ready to look upon the Negro as an immigrant and a cobuilder of America? Or how many typical Middle Westerners know what to make of the Mediterranean peoples?

A third method envisages taking the sting out of national divisions by robbing them of most of their malignancy. I have already expressed the opinion that when these divisions coincide with religious cleavages they are likely to prove much more perilous than they would otherwise. A good deal of the suspicion that has been the lot of the "Latin races" in this country undoubtedly arises from

the fact that these "races" are predominantly Catholic And, conversely, it is probably true that "Anglo-Saxon leadership" would have been accepted more gracefully had it not been Protestant. If, then, a spirit of friendly cooperation among the major religious groups could be fostered, the virulence of national controversy would to a considerable extent disappear.

The outlook for such coöperation is not as dark as it would appear. In Europe, the large confessions have perforce learned how to face persecution together. And under able English leadership, the churches of Britain are beginning to work together for victory and for peace. The impact of such example upon life in the United States is bound to be felt. But no method is a panacea. The moral health of individuals and of groups depends upon a regimen at least as complex and difficult as does physical well-being. And if it is not possible to induce human beings to observe the simplest rules of hygiene, how shall we expect to find them practising moral and intellectual restraint? We can legitimately hope only for a gradual increase in the average response to education.

Quite as much can be said about prejudices that are rooted in conflicting political allegiances. It is not difficult to believe that a neighbor who belongs to a party of which one does not approve is governed by selfish or even improper motives. Though there has been some tempering of adjectives since the late nineties, when comment usually scraped the bottom of the linguistic pail, it is unfortunately probable enough that the current tendency to base political partisanship upon economic differences will lead, if it has not already led, to violent and passionate wrangling. This will not matter greatly unless at the same time the parties seem to follow religious or "racial" cleavages. One can only hope that the American's tradition of humor will not desert him, and that periodically at least he will pause to poke fun at his excesses.

It seems to me that religion, often a fountain source of bellicose speech and action, may in the years that lie ahead come to be the

advocate of serenity, respect for others, and dedication to the common good Surely Dante's *Inferno* does not portray a world as crammed with malevolent hatred as ours has been. Is there not some reason for believing that if men turned their attention to the *Paradiso,* with religion, there would be a more encouraging report to make of the antics of the human race?

SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN THE ANTI-SEMITIC ATTITUDE*

J. F. BROWN

Psychologists have dealt experimentally and theoretically with the problem of the origin and development of social attitudes It is no longer considered that these are determined solely by either the hereditary nature of the individual or his environment, but rather by the structure of the sociopsychological field. By this is meant the distribution throughout both the environment and the individual of biological, psychological, and sociological forces Our premise is that to understand the nature and origin of the anti Semitic attitude we must consider both the psychobiological nature of man and the socio-economic nature of modern culture

Racial antagonisms give rise to what the psychologist calls stereotypes. The stereotype is formed by abstracting certain characteristics from a class, and building these into symbols for the class This can be an economical and socially valuable process only if *all* the pertu

*This article was condensed from the author's chapter, "The Origin of the Anti-Semitic Attitude," I Graeber and S H Britt, eds., *Jews in a Gentile World* (New York The Macmillan Company, 1942)

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nent characteristics are used in the symbol, and not if—as is the case here—only *some* are selected on a basis of emotional or evaluative predispositions. Anti-Semitism gives rise to a stereotype of the Jew which exaggerates or distorts physiognomic characteristics and culturally conditioned responses of some Jews, overgeneralizes these to pertain to all Jews, and completely omits other characteristics.

In our culture anti-Semitism is always latent. Interracial hostility is an exacerbation of a social reaction tendency which is constantly present. This tendency comes from what social psychologists call the in-group and out-group antagonism; that is, the tendency for members of any social group to emphasize feelings of affection for their own group and of hostility for other groups. When competition turns to conflict, the increase in in-group solidarity bears a direct relationship to out-group hostility. For centuries the Jew has represented a minority group that has never been assimilated into the leading national "racial" stocks. This means there has always been latent anti-Semitism, because there is always latent hostility between in-groups and out-groups even when in certain respects the in-group includes the out-group, as the total-national group in a democracy includes the Jewish-national group.

In order to compete with the Gentile, some Jews develop special economic and cultural abilities. To drive the bargain some Jews become sharp; this sharpness becomes distorted into the predatory economic aggressivity of the stereotype. To compete with the Gentile capitalist, some Jews band with other Jews; this racial coöperation becomes distorted into the Jewish "binnen-moral." When financial manipulation was considered below Gentile dignity, some Jews developed proficiency in finance; this has led to the distortion that all Jews are moneybags. Thus anti-Semitism forces some Jews into business practices that become distorted into stereotypes which increase anti-Semitism. Similar things happen to members of other groups.

Further, the practices of the orthodox Jewish faith—the costumes

of the rabbi, the feast dates, the dietary prohibitions, and the use of Yiddish—single the Jew out, and emphasize his different culture.

Gentile children are taught to love Christ, who was himself a Jew, and to hate the other Jews who murdered him. But the Christian faith is the authority behind many of the frustrations of childhood. Unconscious resentment of childhood frustration which we can never openly express against Christ may become expressed against Jews through his identification with them.

Man begins as an animal chiefly motivated by biological mechanisms that must be controlled by society if society is to be maintained. The frustrated urges do not disappear but are rather repressed; they are forced into the unconscious and "forgotten." Much of our everyday behavior originates from repressed and unconscious motives. Anti-Semitism is a socially acceptable way of expending repressed and pent-up energy. This process makes use of three psychological mechanisms: (1) *displacement,* the discharge of emotional energy on objects other than the original target; (2) *projection,* the attribution to others of attitudes and behaviors that cannot be accepted in the self; (3) *rationalization,* the substitution of consciously acceptable motives for true motives which are not consciously acceptable. Viewed psychologically, anti-Semitism represents a displacement of aggression with a projection of guilt and a rationalization of motives.

The average Jew possesses a "racial" individuality, largely physiognomic, that sets him apart from the non-Jewish individual. The physiognomic difference leads to psychological differentiation. The Jew early becomes conscious of his Jewish characteristics, and in a culture which is dominantly Gentile is inclined to develop inferiority feelings. These tend to be *overcompensated* by aggressive behavior, which in its turn becomes the source of further anti-Semitism

Finally, the Jew is the biological and cultural equal of the Gentile. Psychologically we love, hate, and fear our equals more than our

inferiors. It is also known that outlet for emotional urges is most easily obtained with face-to-face love and hate objects. The Jew, who is so widely distributed over the earth, is everywhere available as a target for aggression.

Thus, for a variety of reasons, the Jew is the recipient of displaced hostility. In modern psychopathology it is realized that any symptom is *overdetermined;* that is, it results not from a single cause but from the combination of a number of factors. Anti-Semitism is a sort of sociopathology, and is overdetermined by deep psychobiological and socio-economic causal factors. Its control will be furthered only if we face it with a full realization of its nature.

HATE AS A DISEASE

DAVID M. LEVY

Hostility is a normal manifestation of human behavior. Its consideration as a disease represents a study of aberrations from a clinical norm. This implies that we can establish a cultural norm of hostile behavior, and measure, however roughly, deviations from it. This is the same basic assumption in all psychological studies of personality—the ability to measure deviations from typical modes of feeling, thinking, and acting.

Observations of hostile behavior are daily clinical experiences of the psychiatrist. Physiologists, psychologists, sociologists, and anthropologists have recently made noteworthy contributions to this subject, which, like so many others in psychodynamics, were initiated by the genius of Sigmund Freud. Experimental data have also been accumulated of children in whom the manifestations of hostility are, in principle, identical with those of all adults. All in all,

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there is sufficient information available, from these diverse sources, to enable us to outline certain well-defined areas.

Typically, excepting in circumstances requiring defense against assault, children are trained to curb hostile impulses. This training starts in infancy and continues throughout life. Parental inhibitions of hostile impulses in infancy are reinforced by religious and social training, by all the requirements of disciplined behavior. In every social organization, from the primitive to the most complex, modification of the hostile impulses is a basic problem, since with uncurbed hostile impulses, society could not endure. The individual is, typically, so thoroughly "trained" in this process of domestication that his manner of dealing with his hostile impulses appears as his instinctive make-up.

The individual who releases hostile impulses, whether in the form of verbal or muscular attack, immediately sets into operation a chain of events that represent ways of modifying the attack, and of protecting himself from their real or assumed consequences. In the experimental situation, the child shows clearly the operation of the dynamics of hostility in every phase of the act. One may see, first, a battle with the impulse. The child may try to prevent its release by going into a distracting kind of play, so that the object he wishes to attack is thrown out of focus. He may deny any knowledge of what he wishes to do. He may state his wishes, and, at the same time, his inability to do anything about them. He may immediately punish himself (in the form of striking a doll or puppet representation) for having the wish to attack.

The difficulty may be focused immediately after attacking movements are released. The movements may be blocked, deflected, and modified in numerous ways so that the attacking hand does not come to grips with the object. The difficulty may come at the time of attack. The slap may change to a slight touch, even to a kiss. The attack may be changed into a purely verbal form. Once, however, the object is assailed, a series of events occurs that is seen in the

dynamics of all hostile behavior. Typically, the child tries to undo the damage he has done, punish the doer of the deed, and attempt to justify the act.

All of these phases in the hostile act may be seen in adult behavior, in their usual and aberrant forms. Difficulty in inhibiting the stimulus is seen both in children and adults in the form of compulsive aggression; cases in which the individual makes an attack in an automatic or explosive fashion. Deflection of the hostile act is seen especially in the form of displacement. The hostility is released not against the primary source of the hostile feeling; in fact, the source may not even be known to the attacker. It is released against any easily available target. In recent years anti-Semitism has been used especially in this phase of the act. In Germany, it became a socially sanctioned displacement, and attempts have been and are being made to repeat the process in this country.

In the adult, attempts to restore or undo the act are seen in the forms of apologies, proof of good intention, penance, and the like. Self-punishing behavior of the child is seen in adult life in the form of self-criticism or self-denunciation. It represents a critical attack on the individual for committing the destructive deed. The child's self-justification is seen in adult life in pure form; in rationalizations, excuses, alibis, evasions, and other attempts to square one's self with conscience. The more hostile the personality becomes, for whatever reason, the more likely will he employ the mechanisms described. He will use them more frequently, in more exaggerated and in more distorted form. Since the constant surge of hostile impulse carries with it the fear of retaliation, there develops an exaggerated fear of the object of attack, in keeping with the strength of the hostile impulse.

When hates are used as social weapons, so that sanction is given to the release of hostility, a disturbance occurs in what may be described as the equilibrium of the hostile act, and personality distortion takes place. This distortion may be in the form of personality

constriction, whereby the individual is given over to the business of hating, and dealing with his hate. The paranoid state represents the highest aberration of this form. Then the individual sees enemies everywhere, exaggerates their evil aspects into delusional forms, and is on the watch for the retaliatory attack to a bizarre degree. Between this highly pathological end product and the normal, there are numerous and observable gradations. The prejudiced individual may represent merely an identification with the accepted prejudice of a special group. Even within that group, however, this prejudice may color a personality to a point resembling the paranoid, but without the more lurid symptoms and personality disorganization. That is, he may be a narrow individual, make false generalizations, exaggerate small events to justify his hate, and be quite distorted in terms of his prejudice, though without general intellectual damage. All the preachers and disseminators of hate must reckon with the sin of creating distorted personalities, since any number of individuals, otherwise socially adjusted, need only a strong incentive of the clever and aggressive hater to become diseased with hate.

In general, the dynamics of hate, as outlined, include the most frequent types. Not included are those psychopaths whose personality structure is so defective that the inhibitions to hostile acts—the self-critic, restoring, and need of justification—are crippled. Not included, also, are the hate perverts, sadists for whom brutality represents some form of sexual gratification.

The various anxieties, jealousies, injustices—the various frustrations that set the impulse of hate in operation—cannot be discussed in this brief outline. In general, however, certain directions may be traced, starting with their origins in particular patterns of family relationships Thus, the individual whose experience early in life is centralized in impotent rebellion against a tyrannical older adult, whether father, mother, or older brother or sister, develops rebellious attitudes against authority, and especially when he has been a failure in his career Hostilities derived from this source may be

unusually generalized, and the individual may attack the entire social structure in which he happens to live. In some children, rivalry with the other brothers or sisters may specialize in the form of holding on to possessions. The child prevents any one from touching his toys or taking his objects This manifestation is frequent enough. However, it may become quite a specialized personality reaction. The objects that are held so tightly are usually interpreted as manifestations of the need of love, symbolic of the original relationship with the mother. Such children put up a tremendous fight when an attempt is made to take or persuade them to give up any possession. Generally, when the emotions of the individual are strongly invested in possession and prestige, whatever the origin may be, change in the *status quo* engenders strong anxiety. The hostility is then directed to any one or anything that represents a threat to the established conditions of life. Such people are easily rendered suspicious to any one who promulgates change, and see a radical step in any liberal move. They are the reactionaries in every society.

The straight line from the childhood experience to the adult manifestation may appear quite simplified in this account. Naturally the patterns are more numerous and complex. Nevertheless, examples of certain personality types along the lines specified may be quite discernible in any social group.

EIGHTH GRADERS EXAMINE THEIR ATTITUDES

TEACHERS OF THE EIGHTH GRADES
Corpus Christi School, New York, N. Y.

The present world situation with its succession of stirring events has done much to revive old prejudices and create new ones. Today an intelligent citizen must be on guard against the distortion of truth by propagandists. The schools have a responsibility to teach

children techniques of identifying and analyzing these prejudices and conflicting propagandas.

Our country is made up of people who differ in race, nationality, and religion. If we are to protect our democratic freedom, it is essential for teachers to lead pupils to understand their fellowmen; to respect the differences they offer, particularly differences in race, nationality, and religion; to let that understanding and respect shape their behavior and their relations with their neighbors; to throw a searchlight of truth on propaganda to see if it is upheld by facts.

A program such as is described below will do much to develop open-mindedness, critical thinking, and wholesome attitudes among the pupils and will inevitably turn out children who will be more tolerant of other people. That some children have prejudices that need to be ironed out is evident. A great deal of ill feeling that exists today among peoples and nations is due to the failure to bring citizens to think kindly of all people The elementary-school teacher is faced with the problem of educating for good fellowship.

The following is a description of a program carried out by the Eighth Grades in Corpus Christi School. After listening to a discussion and dramatization on the "United Nations" by the School of the Air of the Americas, the eighth graders launched into a lively and interesting discussion. During the discussion many problems arose. These are some of the most pertinent:

What causes disunity among nations?

Corpus Christi School is a Catholic parochial school in New York City Its program of education for social responsibility and Americanism is outstanding. The Reverend George B Ford is pastor of the parish

How can a better understanding among people be developed?
Have we Americans a need for better understanding of each other?
Why are we prejudiced against certain people or groups of people?

An exploratory period followed this discussion. This was designed to give opportunity to read, to discuss, and to delve into recent books and pamphlets on this question. It was of interest to note that many of the prejudices of these children were not created by the present world war. Personal experience as well as family background colored the feelings of this particular group. The children expressed their sentiments in these words:

The Jews are clannish and aggressive. They are overrunning our country and taking business away from our people.

One never sees a Jewish person doing menial work.

My uncle had some business dealings with a Jewish man. He says the Jews are not honest.

The Negroes would rather live on relief than work for an honest living.

My father will not hire a Negro man to work for him.

The Negroes are dishonest A Negro boy stole my brother's car.

I am afraid of the Negroes because they do so much killing.

Everytime I go to Harlem I wish some one would take it over and clean it up. The Negroes are lazy.

When I was playing a piece composed by Beethoven, my mother told me to stop playing it because Beethoven was a German.

I distrust the Russians because of reports I've heard about them.

The Japanese are sly and tricky

Too many refugees are coming to our country They are taking work away from the Americans.

These attitudes could not be overcome merely by preaching good will. It was necessary to get at the root of them in order to eliminate such misunderstanding.

If only the bad points of any group are stressed, there is danger of spreading prejudices among children who have none. By emphasizing the good qualities of a people much ill will may be overcome. What one sees depends on what one is looking for There must be recognition that there are good and bad traits in all peoples. Negative points were analyzed in terms of environmental background.

Reading and research work were done by individual pupils and by committees. The classes met frequently to discuss their findings and to pool their ideas. At these informal meetings differences of opinion were freely discussed, critical thinking was encouraged, and a candid expression of thought solicited. One of the children suggested that the classes assemble for a discussion that would bring out only the good points of any minority group. This was done. As the discussion proceeded it became clear that each mistrusted group had significant contributions to bring to the general well-being of society. A perusal of the following comments of the children shows the development that took place in their thinking as they brought out each worthy quality discovered in the peoples whom they were describing:

Many of the Jews are deeply religious.

The Jews are to be admired because they are ambitious to get ahead and better themselves.

History tells us that the Jewish people as far back as the time of Christ have been limited to dealing with money to make a living. They have ability along this line; why criticize them for it?

The Jews are aggressive because for centuries they have been persecuted.

We have limited the Negroes to such jobs as porters, houseworkers, and similar tasks that require very little training.

Labor unions have existed for over a hundred years, yet only within the last few months have some of these opened their doors to Negro people.

Negroes are not lazy We have deprived them of the opportunity to work.

Because Negro men cannot find employment, the Negro mother is obliged to do menial work which takes her away from her family.

Climatic conditions have made the Negroes a slow-moving race

It has been the tradition of this country to welcome the oppressed and suffering from every land.

We should be glad for every other human being.

A whole group or race of people should not be criticized for the faults of individuals.

Many people of different nationalities, races, and creeds have contributed to the upkeep of America

A good Christian will not think of a person as a Jew, a Negro, or a foreigner; he will think of him only as a human being.

One of the children sensed that the idealism expressed in these statements might be lost for lack of being practical. She said, "I think we should analyze our faults which tend to bring out these undesirable traits in other groups My mother taught me this prayer, 'Lord, reform the world but begin on me.'" Directly the pupils began searching their own hearts which bore fruit in a fund of significant suggestions:

Jews are as sensitive to prejudice as we are; by trying to keep them down we have brought out the worst in them. We have made them aggressive.

It is because we have suppressed and persecuted the Jews and Negroes that they have been forced to do things which make them appear crafty, underhanded, and sly.

By being mean and distant toward the Negroes we have manifested an un-Christian and un-American spirit.

I have been critical toward the Negroes for not working and for living on relief. We Americans can blame ourselves for this condition because we have given the Negroes only menial tasks. I know such degrading work would not be an inspiration to me.

I understand now why many of the Negro children I know are lawless and destructive. Their mothers are not home to give these children the training that our mothers give us because many of the Negro women are forced to be the support of their families since we will not employ the men.

Because I chanced to be born white does not give me license to segregate the Negroes and act uncharitably toward them. They were born black.

Those of us who discriminate against Jews, Negroes, or foreigners should remember that it is only because of the hospitality of Americans of another generation that we are here today to enjoy the blessings of American life.

We should think intelligently and independently and not allow ourselves to be swayed by propaganda.

We would think more kindly of each other if we remember that all of us are brothers because we have a common Father, God.

It is important to study the history of each persecuted group and guard against getting our causes and effects confused.

From the preceding comments of the pupils it is apparent that an understanding of the question has come to them. They realize that they have not solved the problem. One of the children summed up the need for continued study in these words, "I think that this isn't a matter that can be settled entirely by small discussion groups such as ours, but by further study in High Schools and by national speeches. All of our people need to be educated."

These children are being guided to examine their prejudices and find out how they as individuals can help to wipe out ill-feeling toward other races It is true that at times their emotional reactions may get the upper hand, but it is also true that they are beginning to develop sound criteria for examining such reactions. When true Christian living follows on such education, we shall transcend our humanity, accepting all men as brothers under the common fatherhood of God. Then we shall respect our fellowmen as individuals who are endowed with all the rights that make them members of a great human fraternity.

THE ROLE OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS IN IMPROVING INTERCULTURAL RELATIONS

HYMEN ALPERN

Since it is generally agreed that character training is *caught* rather than *taught,* the educator and the school can best combat undesirable cultural attitudes by indirection. To have Negroes, for instance, eat in our lunchrooms, sit in our classes, play on our teams, without making any fuss about it, does far more good than making children conscious of a "Negro problem."

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While education to develop coöperation among diverse racial elements should be incidental, it must not be accidental; a by-product of educational activity, true, but not a hit-and-miss proposition. A definite plan must be outlined, specific goals set out, and the curriculum, methodology, and activities of both faculty and students, in classrooms and out, all must be utilized, for the teaching of brotherhood should be a continuous process throughout the year.

The technique to be employed will naturally vary. One thing we must not do, however, is to indulge in glittering generalities and pious injunctions to the effect that intolerance is bad, and that good boys and good girls are not guilty of it. Emphatic recitals of causes, wrongs, injustices, atrocities, and negative suggestions and admonitions may easily defeat their purposes. Campaigns for tolerance often magnify and emphasize situations to which adjustment may already have been made. There are children who are little or not at all troubled by racial differences until they are brought to their attention by such tactical errors.

That intercultural education will be most effective which leaves the students with the convictions and feelings that there are basic similarities in all peoples, that human beings are moved by the same fundamental forces, the same needs and wants, the same aspirations; that all societies have many resemblances; that life everywhere is marked by an overwhelming sameness of triviality in daily living, and only moments of unselfish idealism illuminate the drab monotony of human existence in all climes. Greater emphasis, then, should be placed upon similarities than upon differences. Stressing likenesses will decrease the instinctive fear of the unknown and its worst product—hatred.

Tolerance is emotional and imaginative. It can be trained to greater sensitiveness and generosity through art, especially such forms that call for group participation, choral speaking, singing, acting. In utilizing the emotional appeal, use should be made of the normal sympathy for the underdog, for any one of us may, in a

given time and place, become the underdog. Indeed, it could be shown that America can survive only if we all fight for the underdog now, so that some day there may be others who will fight for us—or better still, who will not need to fight for us.

It is our function as educators, however, not to rely too strongly upon the emotional appeal. We must give due consideration to creating understanding as well as feeling. The high-school student's understanding will be advanced by hammering at the factors of interdependence and of the need for hanging together for mutual security. In the final count, every one is a member of a minority group of one kind or another, if only in a vocational or economic sense. Using this membership as an analogy, the individual can be made to understand the parallel with racial or religious minorities. It can readily be shown how profound our ignorance is of one another, and that ignorance begets misunderstanding, and misunderstanding begets hatred and intolerance, and hatred and intolerance beget only evil, which, in the long run, is harmful to all.

Every subject in the secondary-school curriculum can contribute to our goal. The study of history can establish the fact that migrations of people have made a pure race a grotesque fiction, and the claim of a superior race only a means for persecution, that civilizations have risen and fallen, that culture and science are the products of all branches of the tree of mankind, and that environmental factors have greatly influenced the achievements of people. No subject lends itself better to the utilization of the emotional appeal than English, particularly in poetry, drama, and dramatics. Appreciation and love for our fellow man can be developed by a study of the lives of Americans and foreigners of different backgrounds and origins, by a living newspaper technique in playwriting, and by autobiographical revelations of the universal trials and tribulations of humankind. Mathematics and the sciences, the classics, and the modern languages—each can contribute in manifold ways.

The classroom serves primarily as the place where students

acquire knowledge, but learning the ways of people takes place largely outside of the classroom. That is why the extracurriculum should be utilized for the development of good neighborliness. In the high school, especially, the elaborate extracurricular programs of clubs, squads, and teams provide an excellent opportunity for children to learn to respect differences and to work together. As in the case of the curriculum proper, so with the extracurriculum, the method is the indirect one, but here, too, the work needs planning, foresight, and control. For example, the clubs should be representative of the heterogeneous school population. The membership of each club should constitute a cross section of the pupils in the school. For that reason it is bad to have exclusively Jewish clubs, or Italian, or Irish, or Negro associations. For that reason, too, the more progressive high schools ban fraternities and sororities. Moreover, in the organization of all teams and squads, the faculty advisers should consciously apply the principle of racial nondiscrimination. This principle in practice should be checked and exemplified by suitable publicity, pointing to the diversified makeup of outstanding, successful winning combinations. Where a coach has an opportunity to have a team composed of an Irishman, a Jew, an Italian, and a Negro, that is infinitely preferable to an undiversified team, everything else being equal. Living together tolerantly and helpfully, students could be led to see, is conducive to the proper school spirit and reveals loyalty to the finest in American traditions. Bringing joy to others gives us all a sense of worthiness. The extracurriculum might, therefore, even be expanded to take in social work beyond the school walls.

In the entire educational program of improving intercultural relations, the teacher's role is of paramount importance. He himself must be free from prejudice and possess instincts that are thoroughly democratic. His concept of democracy must be a functional one rather than a mechanistic one. He must have such personality as will lead students to feel that he is a person of integrity and ideals. It is

obviously futile for a bigoted, intolerant teacher to acclaim the virtues of tolerance A teacher's prejudices are evident in many subtle ways which do not escape the keen observations of our pupils. He must possess breadth of vision and magnanimity of spirit. He must, by his conduct, exemplify what is best in human relationships. Arbitrary, capricious, and despotic conduct on the part of the teacher sets a bad model for the student in whom he is trying to implant American ideals of fair play, tolerance, and understanding. Moreover, many teachers themselves need special education in intercultural relations, for they are the products of an educational process that did not give too much attention to this problem. Study groups, lectures, film showings, etc., for the reorientation of the teachers' cultural provincialism must precede any effective collaboration by them in the intercultural education of the children.

We are at this moment at the crossroads of civilization, and more than ever the touchstone of a nation's greatness is not the jubilation of the majority, but the laments of the minorities. Only as these laments become echoes of far-off days will America achieve her full stature. Only as she eliminates the fictitious frontiers between man and man will she, at last, keep her rendezvous with destiny. And in this magnificent and perilous voyage, the teacher is not a mere traveler, but a pilot—resourceful, ever vigilant, undaunted.

COLLEGES EXIST TO PROMOTE UNITY

M. WILLARD LAMPE

Colleges and universities are in a unique position to provide remedies for prejudice and conflict among groups differing in race and culture. The doing of this is involved in the very purpose of these institutions. Every college worthy of the name is a *community* of

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scholars, teachers, and students; and every university worthy of the name, in all its diversity reflects the *unity* of the universe. These institutions should be our best hospitals for all diseases due to prejudice and to the various viruses of misunderstanding and hostility among groups. This is their essential business.

This article will mention four remedies in the order of their naturalness to these institutions. The discussion will proceed from the general to the more specific.

The first remedy is the simple, painstaking discovery and teaching of the truth about our world. An atmosphere of commitment to the truth, whatever it is, wherever it may lead, is wholesome tonic for any disease in human relationships. One reason for this is that the study of our world at every point brings to light the presence or the value of *cooperativeness,* without which we would not have a "universe" or a "society." Truth-loving scholarship reveals differences, but, even more, an underlying unity. To be sure, no intellectual pursuit by itself will cure prejudice which is rooted in the emotional rather than the rational life, but this very fact and all that may be related to it constitute an area of study, into which colleges, good ones at least, are equipped to go, and where honest work counts tremendously toward the goal we have in view. Every department from astronomy to zoölogy, from geology to religion, may make a positive contribution, in the measure in which they are true to the spirit of honest and liberal education

A second remedy, in line with the genius of colleges and universities, is the stimulation on the campus of a type of community living, characterized by a social unity in the midst of cultural and inherited differences. The chief business of higher education is to train youth and adults to live responsibly, and, which is the same thing, to cultivate among our individualisms friendly forms of social solidarity. When colleges do not do this, they are recreant to their trust, whether as American or as Christian institutions. As a rule they have unsurpassed opportunities to teach people of varied

background to live together in mutually helpful ways, and so to develop the best in each individual. To be sure, here as elsewhere, this task calls for wisdom and courage, but a college without wisdom and courage should go out of existence

A third remedy, closely related to the second, is to deal with the problem continuously and specifically in many extracurricular ways. Religious leaders of different faiths, separately or together, may be brought to the campus for addresses and conferences. Interfaith and interracial groups of faculty, students, and townsfolk are possible. Such occasions as Thanksgiving and Brotherhood Week offer opportunities. In the employment of teachers and other employees, it is possible for colleges, within the limits of their charter and purpose, to secure representatives of different faiths, races, and culture. Most of all, colleges with a religious tradition can help to make their religion vital by bringing cultural conflicts within the scope of sincere worship at chapel or vespers. Such things should be normal in college life, and may be very effective.

Finally, colleges and universities may bring the subject of intercultural relations into the curriculum itself, and through courses and parts of courses, even through schools and departments, make it a subject of thorough study. As an illustration of one serious attempt to do this, it is natural for the writer to mention the School of Religion at the State University of Iowa, of which he has been the Administrative Director from its founding over fifteen years ago. This school, reaching a considerable portion of the student body, functions as an integral part of the University's College of Liberal Arts; its courses are accredited toward the University's degrees; and its faculty, consisting of Jewish rabbi, Catholic priest, and Protestant ministers, have full standing as teachers in the University. It is a carefully organized form of coöperation between the State University and the religious groups of the commonwealth, no State funds being used for the support of the several religious professorships. Typical courses offered are an Interfaith Seminar, made up of a limited

number of students representing different religious groups, and a freshman course entitled Religion and Ethics, which uses as a textbook *The Religions of Democracy*, the three sections of which on Judaism, Catholicism, and Protestantism are taught respectively by the Jewish, Catholic, and Protestant teachers of the School. This course, like all others in the School, is optional, and 80 students are enrolled this year. While no scientific attempt has yet been made to measure the influence of this work, there is reason to say that, as an instrument of interfaith understanding and good will, its ramifications on and beyond the campus are widespread. Other plans are in use elsewhere, but this single illustration must suffice to show what may be done. The continuous and scholarly study of the areas of prejudice and cultural conflict is a kind of remedy, which, obviously, educational institutions should be best able to provide.

These four remedies reinforce each other. Together they are sure to curb prejudice and to promote strong unity in the midst of honest differences. And they are what colleges are for!

TEACHERS COLLEGES AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

CLAIR S. WIGHTMAN

To develop in college students appreciation of the richness and value of various cultures is a problem that must be approached with courage and humility. It is not a problem thrust upon us solely as a result of the war, but the winning of the war and the peace to follow is directly related to the relations that exist between the various racial and religious groups. The problem, therefore, is that of preventing the intensification of undesirable opinions, of eliminating

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deep-seated prejudices, and also of building positive desirable attitudes and emotions. The solution might seem quite simple, for in reality the method or technique for the attainment of the desired end is actual practice of democracy, but there still remains an enormous gap between our stated principles of democracy and our practices. Lip service alone and vicarious experience of democracy will not solve the problem. There must be a definite program for improving relationships among various racial and religious groups. The possibilities of attaining the desired objectives become probabilities where there is recognition of the fact that variations in cultural pattern are important assets of democracy Unless the administrative head of the college recognizes that cultural variation and diversity are potentially good antidotes to authoritarianism, and the instructional staff accepts the role of the college as that of a dynamic, constructive force, the institution cannot become a real bulwark for democracy. To function properly, therefore, it should have an interculturally mixed faculty, for, with such a faculty, there will not be a haphazard, spurious exposure to cultural differentiation. Moreover, any narrow attitude of condescension on the part of those who may not be intrinsically interested in the extension of cultural relationships will not long persist in a wholesome atmosphere of appreciation and understanding.

As an essential part of the program there must be extensive coöperation with other community agencies. The college is but one institution among the many that should work on the program It must coöperate with the parents, the homes, the school, the church. True, the college may function somewhat as a pioneer in the field of social welfare, but probably it will render its greatest service by not trying to create, alone and unaided, a social system.

In different communities various factors may serve as deterrents in the development of a program, but the fundamental needs of the individual remain relatively the same in all communities. Every individual longs for recognition and security. He seeks new experi-

ences but he also wants the haven of feeling that he belongs to the group. This feeling he cannot attain if he does not experience favorable response from fellow beings.

A foremost factor that makes for conflict among the various groups is the propaganda of those who would create dissension in order to further their own ends. Propaganda loaded with myths and legends becomes a powerful implement for fostering racial and religious prejudices and antagonisms. To such insidious attacks the college must vigorously oppose propaganda loaded with facts and tested principles. Assembly programs and public forums sponsored by the college provide excellent opportunities for democratic discussion and the presentation of information by competent persons who are representatives of, or who represent, various races and groups. The eradication of prejudices and hatreds cannot be attained by pooling of ignorance, by the lecture method, or by edict of administrators or executives. Knowledge is an essential for constructive work. In addition to the intellectual phase, there is the problem of conditioning emotion. Feelings and emotions that are nebulous in early years intensify with the process of maturation, and may result in deep-seated conviction at the college age. If there is no program for adjustment of differences between various cultural groups, for reconciliation to cultural variations, and also for the building of appreciations, then antipathies, prejudices, and hatreds may develop and become veritable barnacles that obstruct the development of democracy and impede its progress.

The program is not so much that of instructing prospective teachers in the methods they will later use with boys and girls in the schools as it is one of habituating the college students themselves to right feeling and acting. Practice in right relationships is imperative. The classes in psychology and sociology may get a theoretical explanation of "out-group" and "in-group" relationships, but this alone is not adequate. Each and every college student must be aroused to awareness that the concomitant of the "we" and "they" feelings is antagonism.

In recognition of this awareness, the college has definite responsibilities. It should abandon all racial and religious restrictions for determining quotas in admission. It should offer specific courses in intercultural education, and should sponsor international-relations clubs and intercultural-education institutes. The courses should give the students scientific information and a good background of facts in the field of anthropology, but facts alone and lecture courses do not provide a complete answer to the problem. They may explode the myth of race superiority, but desirable feelings and emotions will not necessarily develop as a consequent to factual presentations. The college must find sets of common interest which conflicting groups can share together; it must also know the various relationships that groups enjoy and the cultural values that are prized by the various groups.

With knowledge the college will utilize the radio, visual education, recordings and other artistic presentations to bring groups together. The radio program "Americans All; Immigrants All" sponsored by the United States Office of Education is an excellent illustration of the kind of program that can be utilized with mixed groups. Nor should the sharing of interests be restricted to the classes in sociology, psychology, and the social studies. These experiences are for all of the students in the college. To have the various cultural groups bring to the college their artistic presentations is of much greater value than to take the sociology class to the slums and "foreign" sections of the city. The extracurricular phase of college life provides excellent opportunity for sharing of common interests. All clubs and activities of the college should maintain open membership. The various groups should work and play together if we wish to live together in peace.

In all of these activities there must of necessity be well-planned guidance Some of the aforementioned prescriptions will be difficult for those who wish to retain racial and religious exclusiveness. For those who harbor such feelings of personal inferiority or persecution that they must have a scapegoat to build up their own

morale and feeling of dominance, the prescriptions will be almost impossible. There are, of course, alternatives, one of which is the avowed program of the foreign dictators for building a race of superior people. That we shall never accept. We must make democracy work to the extent that our minorities will not cry out to us, "How can I hear what you say when what you do speaks so loud?"

A COMMUNITY'S TOTAL WAR AGAINST PREJUDICE

ALICE L. HALLIGAN

The citizens of Springfield, Massachusetts, claim no other distinctions for their community-school program than two: they have avoided moral preachment and clichés and they have enlisted all community efforts in education in their program. They believe that one cannot read his destiny by the light of clichés however bright that light may be; that words like liberty, equality of opportunity, and inalienable rights must be applied to real situations to gain real meaning; and that certainly if the attempt to realize our democratic ideals is not a continuous process it will lose its strength and directive power.

In October 1939, the National Conference of Christians and Jews proposed to Dr. John Granrud, superintendent of schools in Springfield, Massachusetts, the launching of a program for the teaching of democracy in Springfield. In planning such a program, since the schools had always been conscious of their obligations to the community in the training of an honest, intelligent electorate, they could build on a foundation already laid. Also, since it was the practice of the Superintendent and the School Committee to appoint teachers and administrative officers on grounds of character

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and ability alone, inevitably many races, nationalities, and religious groups were included. The paradox of a large school population of Negro, Italian, Jewish, French, and Anglo-Saxon origin and an exclusively Anglo-Saxon teaching force did not exist. These factors helped to provide a favorable "climate" for the experiment.

In October 1939, Dr. Granrud appointed a committee representative of all the educational levels in the school system, including supervisors, principals, and classroom teachers, to study the problems involved in organizing the program. After much deliberation and study, the committee came to these conclusions:

1. Many of the prejudices, biases, and undemocratic attitudes evident among the children are reflections of forces and factors outside the school, such as the home, the street, the club, and sometimes even the church; the program for democracy should not, therefore, be designed solely for the children in the schools but should reach the parents and the adult world which conditioned the child's environment and thinking.

2. One of the major weaknesses of previous attempts to inculcate democratic ideas was the fact that the teaching had been too idealized. Youngsters were given to understand that we in this country had already achieved a perfect democracy. This teaching and idealization did not coincide with the realities of the youngsters' experiences. They soon became disillusioned because their own observations invalidated the idealizations. Children were taught, for example, that this was a land of equal opportunity and that in this country people were not discriminated against because of race, religion, or creed. But the Negro girl knew very well that even though she were an excellent stenographer, there was little possibility of securing a position as a stenographer; and the boy with a foreign-sounding name knew that his chances for securing a good position were not so good as those of his classmates who had Anglo-Saxon names. The committee decided, therefore, that issues should be faced squarely; that, while a positive and affirmative position on

democratic ideals would be taken, it should be emphasized that we had not yet achieved the perfect democracy which is our goal; that the weaknesses in our democratic processes should be pointed out, and the question how these weaknesses could be corrected and how our democratic processes could be strengthened should be discussed realistically.

3. In order to eradicate blind and intolerant attitudes it was imperative that pupils understand all the constituent elements of our population, the historical backgrounds of these elements, and their contributions to American life.

4. Finally, it was essential that democratic ideals be presented to students in a dynamic fashion calculated to fire their enthusiasm and to inspire their devotion to democracy as the best means of achieving the good life for all our people.

In order to achieve these objectives, activities were introduced consonant with the abilities of students on each level of the school system. In the elementary school with the general purpose in mind, learning was centered around and integrated into "living and working together." In one elementary school the objectives of learning to value the privileges of living in the United States of America, developing an understanding of some fundamental concepts of democracy, working well together, and giving each child an opportunity to make his contribution to the group found expression in making a series of decorative panels, depicting fundamental concepts of democracy. This work was a joint enterprise involving every child. Together they planned the composition. They decided upon the pupils most capable of assuming the more responsible tasks. They learned to criticize and accept criticism. In the course of the work they gained a keener realization of our interdependence with other nations, a better understanding of the contributions of other peoples to our civilization, growth in independent thinking, and added appreciation of the significance of democracy.

During the past year each teacher in the elementary schools has

selected one child under her care, analyzed that child's qualities of citizenship and studied his growth for one year. In order to help in this process it has often been advisable to coöperate with the home, the church, and the social agencies. From the mass of material gathered together it is hoped that there may be evolved an adequate scale in measuring citizenship for the use of all teachers.

Junior-high-school studies centered around an appreciation of the rich heritage of America. A study of the contributions of the various nationalities to the development of our country and more specifically to the growth of Springfield was undertaken. Students gathered information from newspaper files, from records of the American Historical Society, and from autobiographies of the foreign born. Art, music, English, and social-studies classes worked together in preparing illustrative material. Students in junior high school, tested before and after studying this unit of work, showed considerable gain in tolerance and appreciation. They are being conditioned to make of our divergent cultures a bright pattern of strength and variety.

The objectives of the work of the senior high schools are: to provide opportunities for democratic self-government; to analyze the problems confronting us today, studying both the weaknesses and strengths of our democratic processes and determining how the former could be corrected and strengthened; to establish a positive working philosophy based upon democratic principles; to evaluate one's own prejudices and biases; to study public opinion in a democracy and to understand how it is influenced; to teach students how to weigh evidence, how to reach conclusions objectively, and how to distinguish between fact and opinion.

Before the program was begun students were tested by objective-type tests, especially constructed for the purpose, for "open-mindedness," "ability to distinguish between fact and opinion," "ability to analyze conflicting statements," "critical evaluations," and "support of generalizations." A second form of the same test was ad-

ministered after the program was completed. The tests indicated that progress had been made by the students in learning to think critically.

It was felt by both students and teachers that many of the youngsters had progressed considerably in overcoming their prejudices because of the self-analysis and open discussion conducted in class. For example, in a discussion on discrimination against Negroes in employment it was demonstrated that many employers insisted that they had no objection to hiring Negroes but that the white employees objected to them. All the students, consequent upon the discussion, condemned discrimination in employment and avowed that when employed they would work alongside their Negro fellows just as they now studied and played with them in the public schools.

A comparable program for democracy was launched on the adult level with these purposes: to interpret the public-school effort to parents and to the adult community; to develop an intelligent and active interest on the part of adults in communal affairs and in democratic processes; to provide for intelligent discussions of current problems under competent leadership; to initiate action toward correcting some of the community practices and traditional habits which are inimical to democratic theory and practice.

In order to effect these purposes some of the activities are as follows:

1. The newspapers and radio were utilized to arouse interest in the program.

2. While free public forums had been sponsored in Springfield during the past six years, controversial subjects were introduced for the first time with competent authorities taking opposing positions.

3. A film forum series was presented on vital social and economic problems such as housing, municipal government, and the problem of racial, religious, and economic minorities. The discussions fol-

lowing the film showing were led by experts and were focused on local problems

4. Prior to the November elections nonpartisan political meetings were sponsored in public-school buildings Candidates for office of both political parties spoke from the same platform and answered questions and criticism from the floor. It was a true revival of the old New England town meeting.

5. In coöperation with the Council of Social Agencies an investigation of the conditions of domestic workers employed in private homes was undertaken and standards for fair working conditions in household employment were established. Representatives of all the major women's clubs in the city subscribed to these standards.

6. Again in coöperation with the Council of Social Agencies an investigation of the social and economic conditions of the Negro population in Springfield was undertaken with a view to improving those conditions. The investigation is now well under way.

7. Through the School Placement Bureau slow but steady progress has been made in breaking down discrimination in employment.

8. The adult evening classes have fostered a realistic discussion of social, economic, and political problems.

9. Neighborhood forums were introduced to discuss firsthand accounts of life in the armed services and the individual's adjustment to the strains of wartime living.

In this fashion is Springfield waging "total war" on intolerance, bigotry, and the foes of democracy. After three years of experimentation with a realistic type of citizenship program in Springfield, Dr. John Granrud stated: "It is my conviction that our public schools can do far more than they have in the past to develop democratic attitudes and to eradicate the prejudices and biases which undermine the very cornerstone of our national life. There is no place in America for racial or religious intolerance or for discrimi-

natory practices, whether they be social, economic, or political. The years ahead may be trying ones indeed. They will require of all citizens resolute courage, clear thinking, boundless faith, and profound devotion to the democratic way of life."

THE COMMISSION ON AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP OF THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF AMERICA

GEORGE JOHNSON

In the year 1939, the occasion being the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the Catholic University of America, the bishops of the United States commissioned that institution to prepare curricula and teaching materials on Christian social living and American citizenship for use in the Catholic schools of the United States. In accordance with this mandate, the Rector of the University, the late Bishop Joseph M. Corrigan, organized the Commission on American Citizenship. The Commission is made up of both Catholics and non-Catholics and numbers 144. The actual development of the project was entrusted to the Right Reverend Francis J Haas, dean of the School of Social Science, and the Reverend George Johnson of the Department of Education in the University An Advisory Committee for the purpose of aiding in the planning of the project was formed consisting of the following persons: Herbert C. F. Bell, Professor of History, Wesleyan University; Franklin Dunham, Director, National Catholic Community Service, Charles G. Fenwick, Professor of Political Science, Bryn Mawr College; James L Hanley, Superintendent of Public Schools, Providence, Rhode Is-

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land; F. Ernest Johnson, Professor of Education, Columbia University; Jerome G. Kerwin, Professor of Political Science, University of Chicago; David A. McCabe, Professor of Economics, Princeton University; Florence Stratemeyer, Professor of Education, Columbia University; Henry C. Taylor, Director, Farm Foundation, Chicago; Howard E. Wilson, Professor of Education, Harvard University.

There exists in the Catholic Church a definite body of social and economic teaching which it should be the function of Catholic education to translate into practice. This has never been done as effectively as might be wished, due very largely to the compulsion under which Catholic schools and colleges have labored in order to meet the ever increasing demands upon their facilities and their personnel. Though there does exist a Catholic philosophy of education that is fairly definite, it has not been adequately implemented by textbooks and courses of study. It has been left very largely to the teacher to interpret the branches of the curriculum to the learner in accordance with fundamental Catholic principles.

Through the Commission on American Citizenship the Catholic University set out to remedy this situation at least as far as the social studies are concerned. After a careful survey of all possible approaches it was decided that the best results could be obtained by developing a curriculum to prepare children for Christian social living on the elementary level and to implement this with a series of basic readers founded on the same theme. At the same time consideration was given to the needs of the secondary schools and the colleges. On the college level two books have been prepared by members of the faculty of the School of Social Science They are *American Social Problems*, by Mary Elizabeth Walsh, and *Introductory Economics*, by George T. Brown A third book of the series, *American Government*, by Dr. John L. McMahon, president of the College of Our Lady of the Lake, San Antonio, Texas, is now on the press.

The emergence, in these our times, of social theories in variance with Christian teaching and contrary to free American institutions make necessary the reaffirmation of Christian doctrine in its relation to social living and the development of more effective methods of preparing young people for the task of thinking and feeling and acting in such a way as to keep alive in American society the spirit of true democracy. The curriculum for the elementary schools that is now in process of completion under the auspices of the Commission on American Citizenship is designed to accomplish precisely this purpose. Five basic areas have been identified corresponding to five fundamental relationships in which the individual finds himself; namely, his relationship with God, with the Church, with his fellow man, with nature, and with himself. Within these relationships situations are constantly presenting themselves in which the individual, if he is a true follower of Jesus Christ, must act in a Christlike way. This involves on his part certain basic understandings, attitudes, and habits. An exhaustive and practical analysis has been made of all these situations, and the various fields of subject matter have been combed with the purpose of indicating what each one can offer in the way of providing for these understandings, attitudes, and habits.

Religion is, of course, the core of the curriculum. An attempt is made to aid the children to understand the faith which they cherish in terms of the practical, sometimes rather homely, affairs of everyday life. The aim of it all is to provide them with experiences calculated to develop in them the ideas, the appreciations, and the virtues that are necessary if they are to live in accordance with Christian principles in American democratic society.

The fundamental Christian principle is, of course, charity, or that love of God which expresses itself in love of fellow man. The purpose of the coming of Christ was the unification of the human race. Through His redemption the beginnings were made in the divine program of gathering all that had been scattered by sin and the

restoration of the solidarity which was intended from the beginning. That theme runs through the curriculum for the elementary schools, and every effort is made to make children understand that true Christianity frowns on all forms of prejudice, segregation, and separatism. The curriculum would accustom them to such thinking and feeling and action as is implied in the teaching of Christ that all men are children of a Common Father Who is in Heaven and that Christ is identified with the least of His brethren.

The readers that the Commission is preparing for the elementary schools are closely tied to the curriculum and motivated by the same ideal. Those for the primary grades have already been published. They consist of a preprimer: *This Is Our Home;* a primer: *This Is Our Family;* a first reader: *These Are Our Friends;* a second reader: *These Are Our Neighbors;* and the third reader: *This Is Our Town.* In other words, on the basis of the child's understanding of what love means in his own home, the books for the early grades attempt to make him understand that the obligations of love and understanding and mutual helpfulness do not terminate when he steps over the threshold of his own home but remain in full force in the neighborhood, in the community, and in the town in which he lives. These books bring out the fact that free community interrelationships are the necessary by-products of real faith in Jesus Christ.

In the grades above the primary it is possible to introduce more characters into the stories in the readers and specific stories of universal civic relationships are introduced. The fourth reader, entitled *This Is Our Land,* presents a panorama of Catholic missionary activities in the area now the United States. It covers a time from 1575 to the present and a territory from St. Augustine in Florida to the Pacific Coast. It dramatizes the importance of religion in pioneer days and ties in closely with the social studies in the fourth grade.

The fifth reader is entitled *These Are Our People* and is concerned with the expression of Christian social living by children of today, particularly in relation to the racial and industrial problems of the

present as far as these can be understood by children at this grade level.

This Is Our Heritage is the title of the sixth reader whose theme is the expression of Christian social living in earlier periods in the history of the Church: the Apostles and ancient civilizations; the monasteries of the West and the Irish schools; the establishment of order and the spread of law; the tide of culture coming to a high point in Spanish civilization after the Crusades; charity as shown by Vincent de Paul, social justice by Von Ketteler. Its stories are, in the main, tales of moral achievement through heroism.

These intermediate readers—the fourth, fifth, and sixth—will be ready for distribution in the spring of 1943.

For the upper grades a seventh reader emphasizing the Catholic foundations of our American freedoms and an eighth reader underlining the Catholic obligations inseparable from the exercise and continuance of these freedoms are in preparation.

The curriculum and the readers that are thus being produced by the Commission on American Citizenship should make a real contribution to the development of sound intercultural relations in the United States. While they are intended for Catholic schools and the emphasis throughout is on Catholic personages and events, they are in no manner exclusive. As a matter of fact, they could very well be used as supplementary material in the public schools, for the aim of the whole project is to help the Catholic child to understand the fact that he cannot be a good Catholic if he is not a good citizen in the broadest and the deepest sense of that term *His obligation to love and cherish all men, regardless of race or color or creed, is constantly brought to his attention.* Every human being belongs to God and consequently belongs to every other human being. There is no room in the Kingdom of Heaven for bigotry in any shape or form. Such is the underlying philosophy of the whole venture, and the best in modern pedagogical methods and procedures have been enlisted in the effort to make that philosophy issue in that quality of social living that is really Christian.

It is the hope of the Commission on American Citizenship that the Catholic schools which adopt the materials it is producing may become nuclei of a thoroughly Christian attitude toward the responsibilities of citizenship. Convinced that the child's life of today is the seeding time for his adult life, the program aims to put the principles it expounds into practice each and every day. In other words, it is based on St. Paul's assertion that we grow up unto Christ Who is the Head by "doing the truth in charity."

REMEDIES FOR CAUSES OF PREJUDICE THROUGH RELIGIOUS SOCIETIES

ISRAEL S. CHIPKIN

What are the causes of prejudice and can religious societies help to remove them?

Many causes of prejudice have been cited in articles and in books. Only three are suggested here because they seem fundamental to society and deep-seated in human nature, and because they lend themselves to brief discussion in an article of the present size. These causes are selfishness, ignorance, and the fear of differences.

MAN'S INSECURITY

Man begins by loving himself. He wants to live and enjoy life He wants food, clothing, and shelter for himself and his family. He craves physical and mental security. He achieves this security through the development of his physical and mental powers and through the satisfaction of his possessive tendencies. He finds that to achieve security he must adjust himself to his physical environment, to the forces of nature, and to other human beings surround-

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ing him. He seeks to make this adjustment either by winning dominion over these natural forces and human beings or by appeasing them. In the course of time he discovers that if he helps other human beings they can help him to achieve greater security for himself and family, to gain greater power over the natural forces, and to win protection against strangers whom he regards as enemies. This coöperative endeavor becomes for him a source of security within his immediate environment and social group. It becomes also a source whence arise attitudes and relations of friendship and ultimately rules for individual conduct, group laws, and concepts of justice. Peculiarly, this concern for neighbor seems to be confined to man's own tribe or special group. He still shows fear of the other tribe and of its differences. Strangeness in other people's color, language, and customs still scare him. Unfortunately, even in our day, he has not yet overcome his fear of differences. Even to this day, his love of self and tribe are still greater than his knowledge of self and stranger. It is when he acquires knowledge of self, of stranger, and of nature that man begins to achieve a real sense of security. But, he soon finds that this sense of security is not satisfied by physical existence alone. He wants to belong, to be related to time and place. He therefore seeks integration with society, with the universe, and with posterity. He begins to crave spiritual self-fulfillment. Thus man begins with love of self, develops a love of neighbor, and ends up by a quest of God.

CAN MAN FIND SECURITY IN RELIGIOUS SOCIETIES?

Can religious societies help to give man a greater sense of security by reducing selfishness, ignorance, fear of differences? Can they help him to achieve a sense of spiritual self-fulfillment?

There are those that can adduce abundant evidence from history to prove that organized institutional religion sometimes produced power-wielding, selfish, and exploiting individuals, kept the masses of people in ignorance, suppressed new or scientific knowledge, and organized persecution of people because of their differences of be-

lief or custom. They can also quote from religious writings expressions of philosophic points of view, of ethical precept, of social practice that are outdated and inferior to modern outlook or standard. They may even point to current religious symbols, customs, or traditions as meaningless or detrimental to the progressive development of man and to his security.

The true religious teacher will admit these facts and contentions. He will then turn to other pages of religious history and religious literature for facts and quotations that have served man in his progress to his present status, and that hold promise for greater aid to his future progress. Religious ideals and teachings represent the highest aspirations of the human soul. Their expression through organized institutional forms reflect the human qualities and level of civilization of the people in control at a particular time and place. Naturally the frailties of human nature in the process of development have at times dragged down the religious standards to lower levels. The honest student of history will acknowledge the fact that fundamental religious teachings have helped to correct human nature and to purify the organized social institutions that man has created. Taking this point of view religious societies today can potentially do much to improve the lot of man and society. They certainly can help to remove some of the causes that influence men to suspect and to maltreat each other.

RELIGIOUS TEACHINGS CAN HELP TO OVERCOME PREJUDICE

There would probably be universal agreement that, so far as selfishness is concerned, all the religious groups in their loftiest teachings seek to develop the altruistic qualities of human nature and to weaken the selfish tendencies. The emphasis on charity, on personal sacrifice, on coöperation and social responsibility, on love of neighbor and of God are all part of the religious tradition and the American democratic tradition.

The world and our country owe much to the religious agencies for their encouragement to the development of education. Despite

its errors, it was the church that kept alive education and the arts during the Middle Ages. In America, it was the church schools that developed the desire for education and laid the foundations for government or public schools. The earliest universities in our country were church institutions and a very large number of our existing colleges today are supported by religious or church funds. A religious institution cannot function except as an educational agency. Whether it is the sermon, or the personal chat with the minister, or the church school, or the prayer, or the deed of charity, their purpose, process, and product are all educational in character. They all help man to widen his experience and to elevate his spirit. They contribute to the growth of human personality. They relate the individual to the past and to the future of human existence. They relate him to the universe and to God.

Religious philosophies and church agencies like human nature have not always been tolerant of differences Yet these philosophies and agencies have developed sufficiently since the American Revolution to acknowledge the right to existence of other points of view and other religious bodies. The movement toward interfaith coöperation has emphasized the universal values to be found in each of the particularistic faiths. Racial barriers have been overcome by Christian missionaries. The coöperative experiences of the present war may lead to greater mutual tolerance and understanding between Occidental and Oriental religious philosophies.

Potentially then, religious teachings can help to cure the individual and society of selfishness, ignorance, and fear of differences.

HOW RELIGIOUS SOCIETIES CAN HELP REDUCE PREJUDICE

If that be so, how can existing religious societies help to remedy these three causes of prejudice where they exist today? The answer is relatively simple but the process may be long and difficult.

The answer is that religious societies must be as loyal to the universalistic as they are to the particularistic elements of their respective faiths. They must stress in their teachings and apply in practice

the doctrines of the Fatherhood of God and the Brotherhood of Man even as they do their particular dogmas and ceremonial observances. Above all, they must apply to their group selves with thoroughness and humility the teaching "Know thyself" They should know their own past, their course of development, the historic and spiritual significance of their symbols and ceremonies. That knowledge should help them to a better appreciation of the spiritual in man as it developed out of a struggle with his own baser tendencies. No religious society should fear to acknowledge the errors of past generations, who may have at times done violence to the very ideals that their sacred symbols have been established to preserve. If religious societies can influence their own respective memberships to regard the theology, philosophy, and symbology of their respective faiths as the peculiar spiritual products of the varying experiences of generations of their own respective forebears, they will begin to understand that differences in religious experiences are as natural and as divinely inspired as differences of color and sex are divinely designed. The development of mutual respect for each other's differences could then bring the respective societies into genuine interfaith activities where all can practise together love of God and neighbor.

The perpetuation of democracy depends upon the practice of the brotherhood of man The American conviction in war and in peace has been that man finds his freedom only when he shares it with others. People of every nation, every race, every creed are able to live together as Americans on this basis

We are fighting for the right of men to live together as members of one family rather than as masters and slaves. We are fighting that the spirit of brotherhood which we prize in this country may be practised here and by free men everywhere. It is our promise to extend such brotherhood earthwide which gives hope to all the world.

President Roosevelt in his call to observe
Brotherhood Week, February 19–28, 1943

PROTESTANT CHURCHES AND INTERCULTURAL RELATIONS

PAUL H. VIETH

Christians and Jews have a basis for intercultural *rapprochement* in their common Hebrew ancestry and their common acceptance as Scripture what Christians call the Old Testament. But by a strange paradox, this kinship is one of the barriers to mutual understanding and sympathy.

Christianity arose within Judaism but came to be separated from it because of conflict over the place and work of Jesus. Consequently a sharp distinction came to be drawn between those within the Judaistic faith and those of the new religion. This made the Jew a subject for conversion to the new faith, with a consequent emphasis on the inadequacy of his Jewish faith for salvation. In spite of faith in and allegiance to a common God, much bitterness developed around the differing view of the place of Jesus Christ. The more liberal Christian churches of today are inclined to accept Judaism in the fellowship of religious bodies with high appreciation of its monotheistic and ethical qualities. The more conservative still think of it as alien, anti-Christian, and under necessity of conversion. The first attitude is a basis for appreciation and sympathy, the second just as surely a basis for distrust and antipathy.

The Old Testament would presumably be regarded as the peculiar contribution of the Hebrews. But rarely does this appreciation extend to include the present-day Hebrew and his synagogue as standing in the line of those to whom debt is owed. It is accepted as though it were solely the property of the Christians, for the present-day Jew (so many Christians think) has alienated himself from such consideration by his rejection of Christ.

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Yet this common background and heritage is a most fruitful ground on which to base our effort for remedying prejudice. Study of the Old Testament is an important part of Protestant religious education. Increasingly the historical approach is being used. This may be defined as the effort to recover the actual life situations out of which the literature grew. This leads in many cases to the identification in present Jewish life of the customs, the holidays, the ceremonies, which are touched in Old Testament study. In some cases it leads to visits to synagogues for firsthand experiences and acquaintance with the rabbi. That such feeling out for kinship with Jews through Old Testament literature is only rarely done is indicative of the possibilities therein for the future.

In churches, which make use of electives in the curriculum of religious education, units of study often appear that are aimed at better understanding of the Jews and their contribution to religion and culture. It is not uncommon in such units to provide for visits of the classes to synagogues for a study of Jewish worship. Under the guidance of a rabbi who understands the purpose of such visits, they may be very fruitful for better understanding and appreciation. Young people's societies, which usually offer a more free approach to discussion topics than the Sunday-school curriculum, are frequently known to include the problem of Jewish-Christian relationships in their program. When this is carried to the point of fellowship meetings with groups of Jewish young people, a foundation is laid for experience in intergroup appreciation.

A committee on materials of religious education has been organized under the National Conference of Christians and Jews to guide the curriculum-making groups in the churches in giving fruitful emphasis to Jewish-Christian understanding and to help them to avoid developments in material that might generate or deepen prejudice. Units of study for children, young people, and adults are in preparation by this committee. A film strip covering a visit of a typical class of children to a synagogue is being made for use in

situations where an actual visit is not feasible, and a similar one is projected for a visit to a Catholic church. A guide to objects used in Jewish worship, indicating where they may be purchased, is being made, to help churches in establishing an educational museum. These and other related activities show what is being planned to help church groups understand the Jews and to enhance coöperation with them. How widely such efforts will spread to local church groups cannot be predicted, but the following paragraphs add some light to the extent to which field secretaries have interested themselves in interfaith coöperation.

A study of the interfaith attitudes and activities engaged in by State and city councils of churches, made in the spring of 1942, revealed a generally favorable attitude toward coöperation on the part of most secretaries of such organizations, and a considerable amount of interfaith activity. Chief among the activities are (1) inclusion of an interfaith emphasis in community young people's meetings, adult forums, radio broadcasts, and the like, and (2) coöperation among Jews and Christians in the planning and promotion of weekday religious education.

The first of these is an effort in the direction of intergroup education. There is an implication in the appearance of speakers of the three different faiths on the same platform which speaks of intergroup fellowship, and there is necessary and wholesome enlightenment to be had from the interpretation of the faith of each which the representative may give before all the others. Perhaps even more valuable is the appearance on a program of a speaker from another group, not just to interpret his group, but because he has a contribution to make to the objective for which the group is assembled. The enlistment of a rabbi to teach Old Testament courses in a community-wide training institute for Christian church school teachers, of which there are two cases on record, is of this sort.

The weekday religious-education movement has been particularly instrumental in bringing different faith groups together in coöperative endeavor, because a united approach is essential to the success of

such a program in the community That as often as not such activity may prove divisive is but to recognize that first efforts at closer acquaintance are likely to accentuate differences as well as similarities. When confronted with the practical problem of religion in education, the individual religious and educational philosophies inevitably come to the fore. A successful solution to the inevitable conflicts is one of the most significant events in understanding and cooperation. Even a failure to find satisfactory solutions is not necessarily a negative outcome so far as the experience is concerned, though it might well be argued that such failure in practical approach to one of the greatest problems confronting America is a symptom of the need toward which this issue of THE JOURNAL is directed.

The weekday church school itself, when properly organized and conducted, is a factor in intergroup education. If the several religious groups are segregated for religious instruction, the situation need not necessarily be divisive, but may furnish an opportunity for emphasis on the American principle of religious freedom, and serve as the occasion for teaching an appreciation of each group. If the teaching is nonsectarian and given in common to the whole group (a plan which, unfortunately, has been too little tried), we are well on the way toward cementing the common bonds that unite all groups, as the public school is now doing in education for democracy.

Similar activities to those described above in relation to Jewish groups are also fostered to establish understanding and coöperation with different racial groups. The Christian Youth Council of North America has included Negro delegates without discrimination. It has given prominent offices to Negro young men and women, not because they were Negroes, but because by personality and ability they qualified for such offices. At the present time there is also widespread effort to establish and maintain friendship with resettled Japanese young people.

In the field of college Christian work, the committee mentioned

above has made a study to discover what is being done in interfaith activities, and, on the basis of these discoveries, issued a pamphlet of plans for the guidance of all groups.

SOME LITERATURE OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHRISTIANS AND JEWS

Books

Religions of Democracy, Brown–Finkelstein–Ross	$2.00
Religion and the Good Society, Benson Y. Landis	.25
Intercultural Education in American Schools, Vickery & Cole	1.00
Let's Talk It Over, a manual for teachers, Leonard Aries	1.00
World We Want to Live in, narrative account of Williamstown Institute, 1941, Everett R. Clinchy	1.00

Pamphlets

What Is the National Conference	Free
The Growth of Good Will, a digest of "All in the Name of God," Everett R. Clinchy	.10
Inter-Religious Cooperation in Great Britain	10
Action for Democracy, a discussion outline, Willard Johnson	.05
Adventure in Understanding, a discussion manual, B. Y. Landis	.25
Basic Convictions, statement of common belief	Free
Christians and Jews: A Reading List	.05
Education and Human Relations, Everett R. Clinchy	Free
Intolerance: A Problem for Psychiatrists? Louis Minsky	.05
Liberty Documents, Edward F. Humphrey (quotations from the Founding Fathers)	Free
Our Legacy of Religious Freedom, Monroe Deutsch	.10
Race: What the Scientists Say, Caroline Singer	.05
Religious Groups and the Post-War World, B. Y. Landis	.05
Speak Up for Good Will, speaker's manual, Ellis Jensen	Free

BOOK REVIEWS

Intercultural Education in American Schools: Proposed Objectives and Methods, by WILLIAM E. VICKERY and STEWART G. COLE. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1943, 230 pages, $2.00 (boards), $1.00 (paper).

This book, written jointly by the editorial secretary and director of the Service Bureau for Intercultural Education, shows the need for intercultural education in American schools and suggests the means of meeting this need The second chapter, "Toward Cultural Democracy," criticizes briefly the theories which have directed the assimilation and interaction of America's racial and ethnic groups, and suggests objectives which the authors believe should guide schoolmen who work in this field.

In the following chapters the means of attaining these objectives are outlined educational principles, the selection and organization of curricular material, and methods and techniques of intercultural education, discussed in detail. The final section is devoted to a brief analysis of important concepts in intercultural education; for example, the concepts of race, culture, majority and minority groups, prejudices and attitudes The bibliography is selected but extensive and includes a list of organizations interested in promoting better intergroup relations.

The Growth of Good Will, by EVERETT R. CLINCHY. New York: National Conference of Christians and Jews, 1942, ten cents

This is a digest of Dr. Clinchy's earlier volume, *All in the Name of God*. It describes the dark pages in the history of group relations in the United States. Those who came to the United States from Europe very often brought their religious bigotry and prejudices with them. Most of the early colonies have records of intolerance and religious restrictions

The Know-Nothing movement, the Nativist parties, the American Protective Association, and the Ku Klux Klan are well-known instances of the American history of religious group hatred.

However, the story is not completely black Good will has grown in this nation. Those who wrote the Constitution of the United States and most of the State constitutions succeeded in making religious discrimination illegal. Fewer and fewer outstanding leaders gave their support to movements of intolerance as America grew up. At last we have come to see

churches, schools, and community organizations assuming as one of their major responsibilities the formulation of attitudes of good will and cooperation among the religious groups of the United States.

American Negroes. A Handbook, by Edwin R. Embree. New York: John Day Company, 1942, 69 pages, $1 00

American Negroes A Handbook can be read in two or three hours, but it supplies a wealth of facts and ideas which should be weighed and digested over a much longer period of time. The style and approach which the author uses in this monograph are similar to but simpler than those employed in his *Brown America*, which has been a standard reference book on the Negro people in America since its publication in 1931.

In addition to presenting the facts about Negro population trends and migrations, the economic, health, and educational problems of Negroes as well as their contributions to American culture, Mr. Embree includes a pointed and convincing chapter on American race attitudes which he describes as "Half-Nazi, Half-Democrat" Taken as a whole, this handbook could well be used by study groups as the take-off point for a more extensive study of the American Negroes

And Keep Your Powder Dry An Anthropologist Looks at America, by Margaret Mead. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1942, 274 pages, $2.50.

The author says "We can only win the war if we fight it in terms that do make sense—to Americans." With the war as a background and from the point of view of an expert anthropologist the author interprets America and the meaning of the things for which we are fighting. Again in her own words the author says "If we are to fight, if we are to win, if we are to hold before us when we fight a goal we will count worth fighting for, that goal must be phrased in American terms, in that mixture of faith in the right and faith in the power of science: trust God and keep your powder dry" (page 262).

The author maintains that America is not strong or weak because of any racial carrier of virtues but rather because of the fact that we have been reared as Americans by parents in certain ways of behaving Those marks of our culture are in our bodies and souls; therefore we are what

we are. However, the America of tomorrow will be what we want it to be because we know what the American way of life should be and so mold the culture of the next generation. She has faith that we can build the world anew if we see a world in which every human being has the right to develop what is in him—a right to succeed and a right to the rewards of success We do not need a blueprint for that better world but we need a sense of direction, and the belief that the job can be done.

Americans All. Studies in Intercultural Education. Washington, D C . National Education Association, 1942, 385 pages, $2 00.

Five chapters of this case book on intercultural education deal with purposes, objectives, and issues involved in intercultural education while twenty chapters deal with specific school projects which have been successfully completed. Thus the book is an invaluable contribution to those who want definite projects to undertake.

It deals with virtually all conflict situations in our American life and indicates wise procedures in the promotion of better understanding and good will. This book should be in the library of every public and parochial school in the land It is helpful for teachers who live in small communities as well as those who reside in cities and is adapted to all sections of the country.

Our Racial and National Minorities, by F. J Brown and Joseph S. Roucek. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937, 877 pages, $5.00.

In the few years since its publication this book has become a classic in the field of American intercultural education In addition to the editors, thirty-nine writers make authoritative contributions characterizing the minority peoples of this nation Special chapters deal with each minority group in the nation, describing their history and constituency.

Another section deals most helpfully with race and cultural conflicts and the role of education in solving those tension situations A final section deals with the "trend toward cultural pluralism." Many of those who work in the field of intercultural relations consider this the most important source book in the field The volume contains a comprehensive bibliography, subdivided by topics, and excellent indices

All American, by JOHN R. TUNIS. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1942, 245 pages, $2.50.

Written in the exciting and interesting style of the sportswriter, John R. Tunis's *All American* is a book about a high school football team. Difficulties arise because of the presence on the team of a Jewish boy and a Negro boy However, the hero of the book stands up for their rights and wins his battle.

The book is an invaluable contribution to the young high-school people of the United States. It ought to be in every high-school library and can be used to great advantage by teachers in their usual classwork. It is an excellent argument for the extension of democracy, written in attractive style.

Children of the Promise, by FLORENCE C. MEANS. New York: Friendship Press, 1941, 120 pages, $1.00.

Children of the Promise is a fascinating story by Mrs Means, an experienced writer in the field of intercultural relations It is written for children of the early adolescent years and for teachers of children. This fictional story describes the efforts of a wise schoolteacher in guiding her students representing various racial and religious groups toward understanding and coöperation with their classmates of differing backgrounds

The experiences concern the ways in which the school children are led toward an understanding of Jewish holidays, the problems of refugee children and their parents, and an appreciation of the fact that, although people are different, fundamentally they are the same The author is conversant with basic principles of intercultural relations, and at the same time the story is written in terms easily understood by children For example, the teacher draws an analogy between the different kinds of birds which are observed by the school children and the different racial and religious groups represented in the schoolroom.

Mrs. Means has written other capable volumes in the same field. *Shuttered Windows,* for example, concerns the problems of Negro-white relations while *Tangled Waters* deals with the relationship between American Indians and other Americans All these volumes are highly recommended for parents and teachers who wish to make the fundamental principles of America understandable to their growing boys and girls.

Religion and the Good Society, by BENSON Y. LANDIS. New York: National Conference of Christians and Jews, 1942, 94 pages, 25 cents.

Religion and the Good Society brings together the principal statements that have come from Jewish, Catholic, and Protestant sources on many of the major issues upon which the welfare of mankind depends. Father Robert A. McGowan interprets the social teachings of the Catholic Church, Rabbi David de Sola Pool performs a similar function for Judaism, while Dr. Benson Landis describes the social ideals of Protestantism and brings together authoritative statements from all groups on common principles.

This little volume does not attempt to play down differences but at the same time one is struck by the fact that there are many common principles on which men of all faiths stand.

Significant recent declarations on social reconstruction, a discussion syllabus, and a long section listing source materials are included in the book.

Together with *Religions of Democracy*[1] this book represents one of the very first attempts to bring together within the pages of a single volume significant points of view from the three major faiths of the Judaeo-Christian tradition. The two volumes together might well constitute an excellent study course in understanding Protestantism, Catholicism, and Judaism.

From Many Lands, by LOUIS ADAMIC. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940, 350 pages, $3.50.

Louis Adamic receives from thirty to forty letters a day, most of them from people he does not know "New Americans" for the most part, they feel that somehow they know *him.* He answers their letters, learns their personal stories, and puts the best of them in his books And because he has articulated for thousands of immigrants and second-generation Americans the unique and often difficult relationships which they bear to a society predominantly Anglo-Saxon in its prejudices, Mr. Adamic has come to be their chief spokesman. Their tales have made his books,

[1] By William A Brown, J Elliot Ross, and Louis Finkelstein New York Devin Adair, 1940, 241 pages, $2 00.

and his books, in turn, have helped them understand their America and their lives.

From Many Lands is Mr Adamic's most solid accomplishment. It is worth a dozen books by scholars on the "history of immigration"; indeed, Mr. Adamic's type of scholarship is infinitely more painstaking and in many ways more valuable, for the facts are perishable and he has mined them before it was too late. Free from the excessive subjective preoccupation with his own adjustment that marks so much of Mr. Adamic's work, this book tells the stories of a dozen typical Americans. Jew, Finn, Mexican, Japanese, Greek, and others of diverse heritage. Through all of them runs something of the same thread, the common aspirations that brought these people to the "new world," and the common problems which they face because of their alien backgrounds—problems of language, racial self-consciousness, intermarriage, cultural isolation, the search for roots in a strange land It is Mr. Adamic's belief that the Ellis Island American has brought contributions that are being neglected in our reverence for his fellow citizen whose ancestors arrived by way of Plymouth Rock. Readers of this book will find much to agree with on this point.

When Peoples Meet, ed. by Alain Locki and Bernard J. Stern. New York: Progressive Education Association, 1942, 756 pages, $3.50.

This study in race and culture contacts is a 750-page volume of excerpts from the writings of 76 authorities on the subject It is an invaluable book for those who desire a source book of readings and background material contained in the pages of one volume It is no book for popular consumption, although many of the sections are written in interesting and attractive style.

Section headings of the book are. 1. Culture Contact and the Growth of Civilization; 2. Varieties of Culture Conflicts; 3 The Ways of Dominant Peoples: The Vices of Power; 4 The Ways of Submerged Peoples Tactics of Survival and Counter-Assertion; 5 The Temporary Scene in Intercultural Relations

This is a "must" book for any serious student in the field of intercultural relations.

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EDITORIAL

The first world war ushered in the intelligence-testing movement which in turn directed attention to individual differences, ability grouping, and standardized testing in the various fields. At this moment, any prediction concerning the contribution that the present war will make to education would be premature. The prevalence of a certain condition under a war economy should not lead one to believe that a similar condition will prevail at the cessation of hostilities. For example, the present war has highlighted the notable lack of skilled technicians to meet military and industrial demands. Yet several years ago, engineers, chemists, and other technical workers found themselves in the ranks of the unemployed. Is the demand for the training in this direction a temporary one or is it marking a turning point in American education?

The school has become a central agency for the community. As evidence, we find that it was charged with the registration for the Selective Service system, the rationing of various commodities, and the solicitation of young farm aides This phase of the school program is definitely of an emergency nature. Whether these contacts with the community will be the beginning of a vital program of school participation in the solution of community problems remains to be seen.

None will deny that the introduction of pre-induction and pre-

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flight courses and the delegation to the schools of tasks connected with the various phases of wartime registration of manpower and rationing are evidences of Federal influence on local education. This is at present accepted unquestioningly as part of an "all-out" war effort. What will the attitude be, should Federal direction be attempted when the emergency is over?

The dropouts from schools at the age at which compulsory education ceases are so numerous as to raise a very grave problem for the educator. For too long a time, we have been proceeding on the assumption that, by and large, students are eager to obtain an education. True, educators have always admitted the existence of a few students who were waiting for that moment when they could sever all connections with school and all it stands for. They were not, however, aware of the prevalence of that sentiment. The fact that so many young people are leaving school today does not stem from a supreme patriotism that causes youth to sacrifice cherished goals of education. It is rather an indication that the lure of the pay envelope is a more potent factor with these people than the urge for development of the individual into the best type of being he is capable of becoming.

Apparently, the faith of professional educators in education as a basic necessity for life has not been transmitted to the students or the community. Our assumption that the constant growth of education was an evidence of community-wide recognition of its inherent worth may have been wishful thinking on the part of educators. This is a serious challenge to the schools and calls for a reappraisal.

I David Satlow

THE WARTIME CURRICULUM[1]

JOHN E. WADE

What changes has war made in the public schools? What is different today from what it was before Pearl Harbor? What revisions have been made in school curricula and in school procedures?

Notwithstanding numerous changes in our program and the urgent need for making every pupil, every teacher, and every parent conscious of the challenge presented by the war, we are not neglecting the fundamentals or any of those subjects that constitute the education to which every American boy and girl is entitled. We are continuing as in the past to teach those things that will have to be known for the building of the postwar world and for life in peacetime when victory has been won.

From elementary school through high school there is a greater emphasis upon American history, American literature, and the American heritage for which the war is being fought. Our course of study in modern history has been revised so as to put greater stress upon the rise of democracy and to inculcate a love and respect for the American system of government and for the principles upon which this government is based.

Shakespeare, Milton, Dryden, and Bunyan; Longfellow, Whittier, and Hawthorne are read in school today as always. Art is taught, music is taught, and the cardinal objectives of education are the same. The only change brought about by the war is to make all of us realize that these things constitute the very substance of the culture we seek to preserve.

The changes, differences, and revisions are found mostly in the high schools and affect largely the older children.

What we have done is to give a more practical orientation to subjects such as algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry, and other

[1] Reprinted by permission from *The Public and The Schools*, Public Education Association Bulletin, November 24, 1942

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sciences. These are the backbone of the pre-induction and pre-flight aviation courses.

We recommend, for instance, that if a boy would become a navigator he ought to have algebra, geometry, plane and solid; trigonometry, mechanical drawing, topography, and navigation If he looks forward to the ground crew in aviation, he must have elementary shopwork, mechanical drawing, fundamentals of machines and of electricity, auto mechanics, aeronautics and related mathematics. In either case he would have, in addition, English, American history, health education, and so forth.

For a girl who plans to become a nurse, the courses recommended include home nursing, biology, chemistry, nutrition, algebra or related mathematics. In the case of one preparing for dietetics, the program would embrace algebra and geometry, or related mathematics; biology, home economics, chemistry, and physics.

Girls may prepare also for precision instrument work, clerical work, and other war tasks. Boys may receive preliminary training for radio technician, meteorologist, pilot, or construction worker.

The main thing that the war has done is to bring home the fact that we live in a technical and mechanical age and that technical training and mechanical knowledge are necessary whether the country is at war or at peace. At the same time the war has given an immediate and practical application to almost every subject in the curriculum. Students are applying their education as they acquire it, and are acquiring it as they apply it What they learn is put to almost instant use. What they do is of educative value while they are doing it.

An 18-year-old boy in high school is studying physics not simply because he may need it for college entrance or because some time in the future he may find it of value. He is studying physics because he intends to enlist very shortly in the Army Air Corps where knowledge of the stratification of atmosphere is something he must have.

In junior high school the 15-year-old girl is studying nutrition not with a view to becoming a dietitian at some later date but because she realizes from experience in her own home that the nutritive value of foods is something very important to know, especially during wartime when food is being rationed. But she sees quite clearly as she proceeds with her study that a knowledge of nutrition is important in peacetime as well, and that here is a subject of very practical value that she might have regarded as "just another subject" had it not been for wartime rationing. Similarly our high-school student of physics sees the practical value his knowledge will have for him when the war is over

Children in elementary school who learn arithmetic by figuring the cost of war stamp purchases and by making computations that have to do with their own Junior Red Cross contributions realize as never before that arithmetic plays a very real part in their daily lives.

The elementary-school program has not been affected radically by the war but the children are participating in the war effort by helping in the salvage campaign, in the cultivation of victory gardens, the buying of stamps, in making things for the Red Cross, and in various other ways.

In the junior high schools the teaching of mathematics, science, English, home economics, social studies, and industrial arts has been related to the war effort.

Courses in vocational high schools such as maritime trades, aviation mechanics, and machine shop work for boys; nutrition, sewing, and nursing for girls are being taught from the standpoint of their function in carrying on the war.

Our schools continue in their usual democratic fashion with full provision for individualized instruction and without any suggestion of the regimentation that characterizes schools in totalitarian countries.

At all levels, what the war has done is to bring into sharper focus

the usable, working value, both during the present emergency and at all times, of the things we teach in school.

The goal of education has not been removed, but we must go through war to attain it. The ideals with which we strive to imbue our children are the same, but the war must be won to achieve these ideals.

WAR AND HIGHER EDUCATION

FRANCIS J. BROWN

It is six months too early to write this article. By another fall we will know which of the varying influences predominate. Then we will know whether our institutions of higher learning are little more than training grounds for the military and for technical industrial skills or remain institutions of higher learning for which they were founded and by which they have contributed to peace and to war for more than two hundred years.

On one statement there is complete agreement: every college and university must and earnestly seeks to make its maximum contribution to the total war effort. Beyond this statement of purpose there is no agreement.

On the one hand are those in both government and education who believe—and one cannot question the sincerity of their purpose—that for the period of the war higher education is "out for the duration" and concede only that such minimum technical and professional training as needed for maintaining military effectiveness can be justified. Their conclusions are based upon the premise that if we lose the war we lose all. On the other are those, also both in education and government, who believe—and their motives are as sincere as the first—that there are basic values in higher education

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beyond those of mere knowledge and technical skill that are as essential as such skill and knowledge even in the successful promulgation of war. They accept the premise that while every effort must be expended to win the war, it should be done at the least possible cost in materials, in men, and in human values; that unless we build these values into the lives of those who will be the leaders of the future, we will lose the war even though we may win the battles.

Between these extremes—both conservatively stated—are those who accept one or the other to a lesser degree and those who seek to find the even more difficult task of formulating policies and procedures that reconcile the two positions—that will win the war and preserve the eventual peace.

To some degree these differences are based upon belief in the projected length of the war. If it can be lost in 1943 or won in 1943; no sacrifice is too great, because it is only a temporary interlude. If it is to be a long war, then the nation cannot afford to interrupt the basic values accruing through higher education. To an even greater degree, however, the war has only brought into sharp focus the age-long differences of judgment as to the relative values accruing from "general education" as contrasted with scientific knowledge and technical skills.

Several specific effects of the war upon higher education are apparent. The three most obvious are: decreasing enrollments, shifts in curricula, and contractual services to the armed forces and to industry.

The first has been summarized by President Walters[1] and need not be repeated here. Two significant facts should be emphasized, however. One is that the decrease in enrollment of women students is almost the same as that of the men, thus more seriously affecting teachers colleges than any other group. In my judgment this does not mean, as many would interpret it, that women value general education less, but rather that, under the bombardment of press and

[1] *School and Society*, December 17, 1942

radio, they have been willing to forego the prolonged period of training for the immediate demands of industry. It is vitally affected by the fact that the new types of employment now, and in the future, probably will pay higher salaries than the traditional professions for women—teaching, nursing, and social work—especially in the light of the investment of over two to five years required in preparation.

The other fact is that many institutions had the largest freshman class ever enrolled and that, for the nation as a whole, the losses were almost entirely in the upper years and especially in graduate professional schools. It is difficult to interpret this fact in any other way than that youth places high value upon college and university education and desires to procure all that is possible prior to the necessity of its interruption by war service.

The second obvious change is the shift in curricula. It is by and large of two types—the telescoping of courses or curricula by eliminating "nonessentials for war" and by the development of courses pointed up directly to war service. In some institutions, this is little more than a regrouping and a shift of emphasis in existing courses. In others, it has meant the almost complete elimination of existing courses and the development of unit courses almost exclusively in the fields of science—in extreme cases, only those that have direct war application One university has broken down its regular and special courses into units of four weeks each in order that men or women leaving for war service may receive credit. Another has developed a one-year "war program" made up of presumably important pre-induction information aimed to meet the needs of men who will be in the armed forces after one year of college. A considerable number of institutions have established "war colleges" relating all courses dealing with war training. In some, the work may continue to the procurement of a degree, in others a certificate of proficiency. In most instances, it is differentiated from the regular credit toward the bachelor's degree.

Paralleling changes in course content is the shift in majors and courses in student elections. Due to the emphasis of both industry and the military upon sciences, especially physics, and mathematics, few students continue to elect majors in social studies and the humanities. One institution reports that for the academic year 1939–1940 the departments of social science and of physical science were approximately equal. For this semester, the registration in the former has decreased to less than 20 per cent of its 1939–1940 peak, while the physical sciences have increased 400 per cent.

The result has been a dislocation of faculty loads or a shift of departments As early as the spring of 1941–1942 the American Council on Education suggested that faculty members, in the humanities especially, begin studying mathematics or science in order to shift fields if the trend, then just beginning, continued. A large eastern institution sent out a questionnaire to all its faculty asking them to list courses they had had in college and even their hobby interests. These data, when tabulated on Hollerith cards, provided ready information on all possible fields to which a faculty member might be transferred. Several colleges and universities, independently or through funds provided by the Engineering, Science, Management War Training Program, financed through the United States Office of Education, have established "refresher courses" in elementary science or a science for members of their own faculty.

The third major effect of the war upon higher education is the acceptance of contracts with a division of the armed forces or with an industry to provide the specific service required for training. This varies all the way from the 2,000 sailors on one university campus for which the institution provides only housing and "messing" to a unit in meteorology which is entirely laboratory and instruction utilizing the physical facilities and the faculty of the institution In November 1942, more than 150 colleges and universities had contracts with one or more of the divisions of the armed forces—one university having more than 4,000 men in uniform on the campus

A recent development in this field is the program of Curtiss Wright Corporation and a number of other industrial organizations. Curtiss Wright is training 800 engineering cadettes in ten engineering schools. The women selected must now be in college, have completed one and a half years of work of college grade, and have had a basic course in mathematics. They are paid while in training and the institution is reimbursed on a contract basis for board, room, and instruction.

At the time this is written, colleges and universities are eagerly awaiting the issuance of the list of institutions selected for the Army Specialized and Navy Collegiate Training Programs. Through these programs more than 100,000 men will be continuously in training in college for specialized services in the armed forces. The Army program will probably be 12 months basic training, 12 months advanced, and 3 months of highly specialized work with careful screening at frequent intervals to select those who will continue to completion of the total training period. The Navy program, equally selective and with similar "screening tests," will probably be 18 months basic, 18 advanced. Whatever the number sent to the institutions, it will be only those required for the armed forces and will be only a small proportion of those now in college. The needs of industry and of civilian life for technically and professionally trained persons must be met either by women and nonphysically qualified males or by continuing to grant occupational deferment for men in training and preparation for such fields. Many have advocated an over-all corps putting all students under Federal subsidy, but such a plan does not appear likely of development. It is not necessary since men will continue in college granting only two things: the opportunity to attend and an assurance that they can continue any one quarter or semester without interruption.

Many other effects of the war might have been included such as the use of institutional laboratories for military research, the change

in student activities, and the difficult task of students in maintaining a sense of values in a world in which there is little sense of security.

Higher education faces the most serious challenge in its history. Its record of service to the nation in peace and in war is unimpeachable. It will continue to render such service. To do so, colleges and universities should earnestly seek to continue to be institutions of higher learning; to resist contracts that prohibit the full utilization of laboratory and instructional facilities; to bear continually in mind that they have a vital responsibility for the regular college student—full time and part time; that research remains an essential service to the nation both for war and for peace; that there are basic and fundamental values that must be retained, built into the lives of the youth who will reconstruct the world along patterns instilled through education into the minds of these leaders of tomorrow.

The trail will be difficult; there will be many alluring bypaths. There is confusion and uncertainty among those in high places both in government and in education. But higher education will survive It will render maximum service during war It will perpetuate those cultural and human values even during the dark days of war and it will be these values upon which will rise the world of peace and of security when the crisis is over.

THE IMPACT OF THE WAR UPON THE SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAM

WILLIAM P. UHLER, JR.

For twenty-five years the health and physical educators have been shouting the need for more attention to the problem of fitness.

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It took a global war to force this matter to the attention of the general public.

By far the greater portion of rejections of draftees by Selective Service boards in New Jersey have occurred in areas showing weaknesses in our programs of health service. Defective eyes and teeth were the basis for over one third of all rejections. Many of these defects could have been prevented and all but a small proportion could have been corrected had we been willing to pay for the service. Approximately ten per cent of the rejections were for causes that in many instances might have been corrected by adequate physical-education programs.

Attention confined to those rejected gives only a partial picture. Consideration of the needs of those accepted for service also is needed. Study of these two groups indicates that:

1. There are widespread dietary deficiencies and that there is need for improved health instruction with strong emphasis upon nutrition.

2. School health education through health service (dental and visual in particular) should be greatly improved and made available to all.

3. Physical-education programs should be organized in every school in the nation where they do not already exist, and existing programs should be intensified.

The National Physical Fitness Program under the direction of Mr. John B. Kelly, Office of Civilian Defense, was the means of directing considerable attention to the need for action. Under his guidance progress was made and to him should be given credit for service rendered at much personal sacrifice.

In the summer of 1942 it became apparent that in view of the national emergency there was need for a reorganization of the secondary-school curricula. Therefore, Dr. John W. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, under authority of Mr. Paul

V McNutt of the Federal Security Agency, called together a commission of prominent educators who met in Washington and organized the High School Victory Corps The Corps includes as a requisite for membership participation in a physical-fitness program. A committee composed of representatives of the armed forces and of health and physical educators was made responsible for evolving a program of physical fitness to serve as a guide for the schools of the nation. At the present time, the first of two bulletins outlining the activities has been made available to the public.[1] The second bulletin, covering the field of health education, will probably be available soon

SPECIFIC RESULTS UPON THE SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAM

Health instruction. Changes in this area are noticeable but so far have been neither radical nor extensive. There exists a greater appreciation of the need for more attention to this field, particularly as it relates to nutrition. In some few instances there has been a tendency to decrease the time devoted to health instruction in favor of the activity program. Obviously this is a shortsighted policy, for physical fitness cannot result from activity alone It must be based upon a sound nutrition. Both health instruction and activity are needed.

Health service. In view of the intensified physical activities the need for adequate health examinations becomes increasingly important Lacking such protective measures, individuals may well experience harm rather than good. Awareness of this fact is increasing. Difficulties will be experienced as more and more physicians are inducted into the armed forces and fewer are available for civilian service. To meet this situation study is being made of means by which the school teachers and nurses can relieve the physician of all

[1] *Physical Fitness Through Physical Education for the Victory Corps* (Washington, D C Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office, 1942), twenty-five cents

possible detail work leaving him those essential services which only the physician can render. More study is needed.

While as yet little concrete progress in remedial efforts can be observed there is evidence of an increased realization that more attention should be directed toward the correction of dental and visual defects, and of other bodily defects that lessen physical efficiency.

Safety education. The need for manpower has focused considerable attention upon the loss resulting from accidents. The fact that since Pearl Harbor we have lost many more men through accidents than through the hazards of actual warfare has highlighted the need for increased efforts in accident prevention. The result has been a stimulation of safety education There remains much still to be done, for preventable accidents continue to occur.

Physical education. Results in this area are more pronounced and immediate than in any other part of the school health program. Realization that inadequate attention has been given to physical education has finally dawned upon the educational world. In the relatively few communities where adequate time allotments and facilities for physical education have been provided it has been the result of interested school administrators, working with the physical educators. On the whole, this has been the exception rather than the rule. Following the induction of men into the armed forces there were made public first the developmental lacks that were found to exist and, second, the improved conditions that followed a period of vigorous training. There are three facts that have evolved and that seem to be incontrovertible. They are:

1. In spite of all progress in the field of physical education the average boy who graduated from our high schools was not sufficiently fit physically to meet the strains of military life.

2. The job of producing physical fitness is of primary importance. It must be done, and it must be done without delay. Time is of the essence.

3. Physical fitness cannot be produced in the meager amounts of time that have customarily been allotted for this purpose.

The need for intensification of physical education is generally accepted by both those within this particular field and those in other branches of education. We have been forced to the conclusion that those aspects of physical education that are wholly or largely recreational in type must, under the present emergency situation, give way in favor of the more vigorous activities, particularly those competitive in type and involving body contact. In many high schools changes have been made to bring this about. Here and there we find obstacle courses completed in accordance with the recommendations of the armed forces, or in the process of being constructed Other schools plan to furnish this equipment in the near future. We find classes in the gymnasiums going through strenuous "workouts," running improvised indoor obstacle courses, and engaging in combatives. Classes are being organized for teaching aquatic skills of the type that meet the approval of the military branches.

School administrators are giving careful study to their curricula to adapt them to the present emergency. So far as the writer can learn from personal observation or from reports received, no school has yet provided the one hour daily plus two hours after school recommended in the Victory Corps Manual. This remains an objective still to be achieved.

Insufficient time has passed to justify valid conclusions as to the results of those changes in the program that have been made. However, the enthusiasm of the leaders and of those under their guidance give promise of a more rugged development in our youth.

It would be unwise to omit special mention of the program for girls. Some few individuals shortsightedly tended toward giving increased offerings to the boys at the expense of the girls' program. This practice fortunately has not become widespread A physically fit nation includes the girl as well as the boy. Millions of girls and women will be in the WAACs or the WAVES or similar organiza-

tions or in industry. Their needs are considered in the programs that have been planned and their activities will progress parallel with those for boys.

Military training. Astonishing as it may be, there has been relatively little call for the introduction of military training in the schools. Those advocating such action have been more vocal than the by far greater number who realize the fallacy of such action. The publicity they have achieved has been out of all proportion to their numbers. Bills calling for compulsory military training in high schools were introduced in the United States Congress and in the legislatures of New Jersey and Pennsylvania. They were defeated. Advices from the War Department are to the effect that the job of the school is to turn out pupils physically fit and that training in the specific skills of the soldier can best be left to the military. We have been advised that time taken from a fitness program and used for military training is a loss that cannot be justified. A limited amount of time can legitimately be used for training in marching and facing with emphasis upon response to command. With this as a foundation the individual can quickly adjust himself to military requirements when the time comes.

CONCLUSION

Any appraisal of the impact of the war upon school health education at this time must of necessity be tentative. We are still too close to our entry into the war. At the present moment we might be compared to a wave that has gathered force and is just about to break. Upon the leaders in educaton in general and in physical education in particular devolves the responsibility of determining that this wave shall break with sufficient force to sweep away the indifference and inertia that in the past have prevented adequate attention to the physical fitness of our nation. Let it never be said that we passed by the opportunity that is ours.

THE NURSERY SCHOOL—A FOUNDATION STONE IN OUR NATIONAL DEFENSE

ETHEL F. HUGGARD

Our great war effort, which can be measured in many terms, is, so far as our littlest children are concerned, measurable in terms of womanpower. More and more women are going into industrial or related jobs. Many of these women are mothers of young children. It is easy to see how the care of these children creates a problem that must be solved not only for the children, but also for the mothers.

The nursery school offers a place where the working mother may leave her child in the full knowledge that he will be safe, well fed, and well attended for as many hours as she may need to be away from home. Not only does the nursery school provide for the physical safety of the child, it also becomes a vital factor in the development of emotional stability in the little ones. These are hazardous days for children. Family life is changed, particularly in the homes of the working mothers. Fears are engendered. In the nursery school, the atmosphere and the activities are designed to develop relaxation and a feeling of safety. Like the safe embrace of a mother's arms, the reassuring presence of the friendly nursery teacher has a quieting effect upon a child who might be frightened by a sudden alarm. The plays and games in which he takes part give the child a release from tensions. The quiet story or the music he listens to are reposeful. He "belongs." He spends a restful, happy day in the nursery school. When his mother comes at night to take him home he is not irritable. Mother and child have spent a day free from worry and they will enjoy the remaining hours of the day together in a satisfying manner.

Upon admission to a nursery school, each child is given a thor-

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Ethel F Huggard, Assistant Superintendent assigned to the Division of Elementary Schools of New York City, has been placed in charge of the program for the establishment of nursery schools by the Board of Education

ough physical and medical examination by a qualified doctor. The mother is present, and the doctor advises the mother on the state of the child's health. Every day when the mother brings the child to the nursery school a registered nurse-teacher examines the child for signs of infection or contagion. Such children are isolated, taken home, or sent to the hospital. Again, this is done in the presence of the mother who learns from these daily inspections a number of things about her child's health. Thus a desirable and useful concomitant learning occurs as the mother acquires training in child care.

Another element in the health care of the child is nutrition. The child left at home may be fed at irregular hours; his food may be inadequate in kind, in preparation, and in quantity. The child in the nursery school receives the diet required by him as directed by the examining doctor and nurse. It is prepared under the direction of a trained dietitian, and under sanitary conditions. It is given regularly. In the course of a day the nursery-school child will receive fruit juice, milk, a luncheon of strained hot vegetables, and a light pudding. This is often augmented with cod liver oil. If the child remains for an evening meal, a light supper is provided. Again the mother is advised as to the best diet for her child, and she is expected to continue it during the hours when she is at home with him.

We must not fail to mention the training in good habits of health which is part of the nursery-school program. Attention is given to toileting, hand washing, brushing of teeth, hours of rest and play both indoors and outdoors. These practices become part of the daily routine, and little by little the habits are formed, to become part of the child's pattern of living.

Educational growth is directed through plays and games, stories, and music. Toys, blocks, dolls, and other playthings are provided for the children at the various age levels where they can be properly manipulated and enjoyed. Large blocks are utilized in creative play.

The sandbox is another place where activities of a creative nature can be carried on. There is clay and finger paint and poster paper for those who wish to try them. Talents are often discovered and guided. There are songs to sing, music to listen to, and a rhythm band to play. Objects in the room are labeled with pictures so that vocabulary is increased and objects are recognized. Each day provides its little quota of learning, not as a planned educational goal, but as a concomitant of the activities engaged in during the pleasurable nursery-school day.

Some of the mistaken ideas commonly entertained about the nursery school are: that it is a simple school to set up, that it can exist wherever suitable space can be found, and that almost any woman with a little training and a love for children can direct one. The exact opposite of the above is true. The nursery school is a complex organization; it requires quarters adequate in size and which meet Board of Health or State requirements; and the nursery school teacher is a highly trained teacher with special qualifications.

In establishing a nursery school, the hours for child care must be planned and they must be flexible They depend largely upon the working hours of the mothers whose children will be admitted. Whether a supper is to be served, or a light afternoon snack given, or other feeding arrangements made depends also upon the working hours of the mothers. The number of teachers engaged will be in terms of the number of hours per day that the nursery school will be open. The doctor's hours and the nurse-teacher's hours must be considered. The whole matter of food must be explored. There is purchase, preparation, serving, and cleaning up. There is the problem of the laundering of bibs, sheets, underthings, and the cleaning of blankets. The space devoted to the nursery school should include a playroom, a sleeping room, a toilet and washroom, and outdoor play space. The teachers should be college graduates trained in nursery-school procedures. The ideal is a trained nurse-teacher.

The nursery school is expensive, but in terms of the service it gives,

it is not costly. In terms of work hours saved for war industry by working mothers it pays for itself. In terms of the security, the health care, and the emotional and educational training of the little children of our working mothers, it is a sound investment to be repaid over and over again in the physical and mental health of our children. These children are going to build our new world. That is why I call the nursery schools a foundation stone in our national defense.

CIVILIAN DEFENSE AS NONFORMAL EDUCATION

DAN W. DODSON

As the war passed from defense to offense, it was only natural for the civilian defense program to undergo a change of emphasis. We soon learned how to extinguish fire bombs and how to administer first aid. It was apparent as we went along that the dangers from these sources would decrease progressively and that dangers resulting from a weakening of the home front would become greater factors. We began to realize that Americans were going to have to gird themselves for total war. This meant giving up conveniences and making sacrifices. If the morale of the public were to be maintained, it meant that the people had to realize that this was a people's war, and that each person had to be taught the necessity of making sacrifices. It also meant that the people had to be taught how to adjust their lives to these new demands.

The total community had to understand that a thousand babies who would die as a result of the change in dietary habits were the same casualties of the war as a thousand men killed on a battlefield. We had to understand that a thousand youths who become delinquents as a result of the absence of control in the family—because of fathers being away from home in armed forces, or mothers working in defense plants, or whatever—would be social cripples and much

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harder to rehabilitate after the war than a comparable number of physical cripples. Also, the dangers of epidemics resulting from vitamin deficiency as a result of nutrition changes would become a greater threat to the community than the threat of enemy bombings. (Especially is this danger apparent when it is realized that in the last war we had more casualties from influenza than from front fighting, and that we face this possibility with a shortage of medical men left for civilian care.)

The total community had to realize that its failure to salvage fat for explosives, scrap for steel production, and tin cans for tin salvage could result in the loss of life of its sons on fields of battle if by their negligence the flow of war material were impeded. And their refusal to provide continuously a flow of blood plasma might cost the lives of their own sons on some foreign field of battle.

These and other problems, including the necessity of sharing with our allies, are problems which are educational in nature, and paramount in the present stage of the war effort. They involve reaching the lowliest household in the community as well as the highest. While the social-service need of the families at the lowest strata may be most important in terms of civilian suffering, it is equally important to help the upper strata understand why they should not hoard food or patronize a black market.

Unhappily this phase of civilian defense is much more difficult than the earlier stage of protective services. We have little experience in mobilizing communities to carry on such programs of social welfare. The air-raid warden could blow a whistle to command a blackout, and public opinion would support him, but a positive program of providing adequate channels through which youthful behavior can be directed into socially acceptable patterns instead of socially unacceptable ones is much more complicated. The explanation of point rationing so that the people will wholeheartedly accept it and not be exploited through it is still another phase of the problem.

To provide a channel through which we can reach the total com-

munity, the civilian defense organization has projected what is locally known as the block service plan. This approach envisions a volunteer block service leader for approximately every twenty families. The function of this person will be that of a liaison between the War Services Division of the local civilian defense organization and the families. Of course, there will be zones, sectors, and other overhead leaders modeled somewhat on the order of the air-raid setup. This block service leader will be responsible for *interpreting* war-service programs such as point rationing to the people, he will *advise* as to where information can be obtained relating to any phase of consumer relations, he will *recruit* for the other volunteer services as the need arises, and will *collect data* for the governmental agencies concerning the well-being of the families he represents. For instance, if delinquency seems to rise in any neighborhood he can, in collaboration with the other block service leaders of his zone, immediately collect pertinent data on the families of the neighborhood, and channel it back to the proper authorities.

Obviously, this block service plan is a Gargantuan undertaking. In New York City alone it will entail the recruitment and training of approximately 100,000 people. The block training program must train the leaders to avoid the pitfalls as well as to teach the content of the programs which they are to interpret to the people. They will have no authority. They will command respect only as they serve their neighbors. They cannot be little people who always wanted to be big people, who will stick out their chests and pose as governmental representatives. In the broadest sense they must understand that if democracy is to be preserved, the organization itself must be democratic from the top to the bottom. Unless extreme care is used, minority groups within the community who are already under pressure will resent this meddling in their business and conceive of the block leader as a government *gauleiter*.

Most sociologists have their fingers crossed with respect to its success. The block plan as it has been used in the past has been primarily

to develop a community program which would defeat the political machines. This time it is being used as a political instrument. Many doubt if it can be democratic, since it is organized from the top down instead of from the neighborhoods up. Some are concerned locally because the civilian defense organization which was selected to develop the protective program inherited this essentially community welfare program.

Most of the prospective disadvantages, however, are canceled out by the prospective advantages. Block leader personnel will have a tremendous turnover until leaders are found who are acceptable to the people. As these block leaders discuss the problems related to their community and see the machinations of the political organization at the top, it is quite likely that opinion will crystallize and they will throw the politicians out, and develop a leadership that will put elementary principles of democracy into operation, and make the program succeed.

The most challenging part of the program is perhaps its postwar implications. It is obvious that if the program succeeds it will do so because we are able to find people in every community who will speak the language of the people themselves This means that in every local neighborhood there will be developed a leadership that will remain as a residue when the war is over. It may provide the means through which we will solve many of the most chronic community problems that have plagued us in the era which has passed.

All in all, this group of civilian defense volunteers working together, studying together, can become a powerful force. It has the possibility of welding us into a people's front in a people's war. It may develop such a sense of community responsibility that we will approach the peace with a comparable sense of social responsibility for the whole world If it does, this nonformal program of education may go a long way toward keeping this war from being a total social loss. If it succeeds, it may compensate in some small way for the blood being shed by our sons, fathers, and allies.

IMPACT OF WAR ON THE SCHOOLS

INTRODUCTION

Toward the end of October 1942, as soon as school policies for the academic year began to crystalize, the editor of this issue in consultation with the managing editor prepared a questionnaire on the "Impact of the War on the Schools." The questions dealt with the effect of the war on curriculum, enrollment, school services, school law, student morale, school routines, use of school buildings and facilities, teacher supply, teachers' duties, and school finance. In addition, questions calling for anticipated and desired changes—both for the duration and postwar—were included.

Copies of the questionnaire were forwarded to the active members of Rho Chapter, Phi Delta Kappa, a professional fraternity in education. Seventy-nine replies were received. One must be cautious in the predication of generalizations where the basis for such generalization is so limited a number of responses. However, we can be reasonably justified in assuming that these figures are fairly indicative of educational trends a year after Pearl Harbor. This assumption is justified when we consider the unusually good sampling that the responses represent. Those responding included teachers, teachers-in-charge, assistant principals, heads of department, principals, assistant superintendents, superintendents, psychologists, guidance directors, professors and deans, representing elementary, junior, and senior high schools, colleges, and school systems, extending from Vermont to Texas and from Long Island to California. The respondents were associated with school registers ranging from 90 to 20,000, with school staffs ranging from 12 to 1,000.

Responses to the several questions (except the one dealing with school law on which insufficient data were received to warrant any generalization) were tabulated by the issue editor and forwarded to ten commentators whose analyses and interpretations follow.

I. EFFECT ON THE CURRICULUM

STEPHEN J. WRIGHT

IMPACT ON THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The curriculum of the high school appears, thus far, to have been more sensitive to the impact of war than either the college or elementary school. From Table I, it can be seen that 94 courses have been added, of which 73 or approximately 77 per cent have been of a mathematical or technical nature. The courses added represent some 28 fields with, of course, some overlapping. Some of these courses, the preflight and navigation for example, are new to the high-school curriculum and most of the others, prior to the war, were regarded as belonging largely to the vocational school. It can be seen also that mathematics, a subject which had been losing ground rather steadily since 1890, is now gaining ground. The fact that 33 schools were reported as offering preflight courses is, perhaps, the most arresting feature indicated by the table. While aviation is admittedly important and bids to become increasingly so, a question might be raised concerning the balance in course offerings This question involves the following considerations:

1. In a majority of the schools, the pupil population is relatively evenly divided between boys and girls—a factor which suggests a discrimination in favor of the boys.
2. Indications are that large numbers of skilled and semiskilled workers of both sexes are and will be needed
3. With the lowering of the draft age, many of the boys will enter branches of the armed services other than the Air Force.
4. The extent to which the newly added courses contribute to the broader functions of the high school.

Table I also shows that certain courses are being dropped—particularly in the foreign-language and social-studies areas. Some fifteen courses are included in these areas. At this point, however, it is, perhaps, too early to get an accurate indication of the trends, but at the time these data were assembled, it appears possible to infer at least the general direction of the trends. Accordingly, then, the foreign languages, especially German,

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TABLE I

NAMES AND NUMBER OF COURSES REPORTED ADDED OR DROPPED BY THE SCHOOLS

Courses Added	*Number of Schools*	*Courses Dropped*	*Number of Schools*
Preflight	13	None	30
Electricity and radio	12	Foreign languages	6
Navigation	8	Economics	2
Physical education	6	Economic geography	2
Nutrition	4	Problems of democracy	2
Mechanical drawing (for girls)	3	History, ancient	1
Spanish	3	History, modern	1
Machines	3	Sociology	1
Distributive education	3	Automobile driving	1
Pan American culture	3	Electricity, elementary	1
Mathematics	2	Carpentry, elementary	1
Mathematics, shop	2	Metalwork	1
Mathematics, refresher	2	Automobile mechanics	1
Blueprint reading	2	Chemistry	1
Machine shop (for girls)	2		
Welding	1		
Junior engineering mathematics	1		
Photography	1		
Map making	1		
Shop science	1		
Chemistry, general	1		
Physics, general	1		
Radio Code typing	1		
Typing	1		
Office machines	1		
Music, instrumental	1		
Transcription	1		
Home and family living	1		
Consumer education	1		
First aid	1		
World literature	1		
None	8		
Total (added)	112	Total (dropped)	51

French, and Latin, are being dropped, but this apparent trend is being offset somewhat by additions in Spanish—which doubtless stems from our increased emphasis on the Good Neighbor Policy. Not all of the secondary schools, however, are following this trend. The secondary schools of Pasadena, it is reported, have introduced courses in Japanese, Russian, military German, and Portuguese. Another striking feature

indicated in this table is that so far the majority of the high schools have not dropped any courses.

A large majority of the schools reporting have given the old courses special war emphases and the emphases given are on whatever applications these courses may have for prosecuting the war (*see* Table II). The extent of the emphasis is, of course, difficult if not impossible to ascertain. A few examples will illustrate the nature of the emphasis. In chemistry, the emphasis is on plastics, synthetics, explosives, and gases; in mathematics, applications to navigation and aviation are stressed; in science, the accent is on meteorology, photography, and radio

TABLE II

THE CHANGE OF EMPHASIS IN COURSES ON THE HIGH-SCHOOL LEVEL

Name of Course	*War Emphasis*[a]	*Number*
Mathematics	Aviation, navigation	27
Science	Radio, meteorology	26
Social studies	Meaning of democracy	12
Health education	Commando training, etc.	11
Shop	Riveting, metalwork	5
English	More functional	4
Chemistry	Gases, photography	3
Biology	Flight problems	2
Mechanical drawing	More advanced	2
Woodwork	War plane models	1
Homemaking	Nutrition	1
First aid	More rigid	1
Business training	Correlation with military administration	1
All courses	Military and war	6
Total		102

[a] Samples only

IMPACT ON THE ELEMENTARY- AND JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULA

The elementary and junior high schools, having to deal more with the fundamentals and being further from participating directly in the war owing to the age of the pupils, have been less affected by the war as indicated by addition or elimination of any considerable number of courses. The elementary schools reported the addition of only four courses: physical education, shop, domestic science, and music—all subjects which most elementary schools had in some measure prior to the war, with the

possible exception of shop. As to emphasis, the courses in geography have accented maps with special reference to the war zones, while the social studies have directed special attention to such matters as the meaning of democracy and current events. One principal reports "a stronger emphasis on militant patriotism."

The junior high schools, as should be expected, have apparently been affected more by the war than the elementary schools, but again the effect has been toward special emphasis rather than in the addition or elimination of courses. Several schools have added commando training to the courses in physical education, while the shops are making model airplanes, and the social studies, as in the elementary schools, are stressing current events, active citizenship, and the meaning of democracy.

THE IMPACT ON HIGHER EDUCATION

The effect of war on the college curriculum has been quite marked, but perhaps not so marked as in the high-school curriculum. As shown in Table III, 45 courses, representing 19 fields, have been added, and all of the colleges reporting, except one, have added at least one course in response to the demands of war. It will be observed that the correlation between the courses added on the high-school and college levels is relatively high. The technical and scientific courses, for example, predominate, and, in terms of frequency, the courses relating to aviation rank first on both levels; while courses relating to radio and health also rank near the top on both levels. Contrary to the situation existing on the high-school level, however, there is apparently more balance in the course offerings on the higher level. On the college level, approximately 16 per cent of the additions are directly related to aviation, whereas on the high-school level the percentage reaches 35. The dropping of courses on the higher level was not so marked as on the high-school level. Only one institution reported the elimination of courses, but, since the draft age has been lowered, this situation will probably not obtain very long and is perhaps not representative now. One eastern State teachers college reported substituting mathematical analysis for the survey course in English literature as a requirement for all entering freshmen.

With reference to emphasis on war application, the higher institutions follow a pattern almost identical with that observed on the high-school level—both as to subjects and nature of the emphasis (*see* Table II). In

TABLE III

COURSES ADDED ABOVE THE HIGH-SCHOOL LEVEL

Courses Added	*Number of Schools*
Aeronautics	7
Mathematics	6
Health and safety	5
Radio	4
Science	2
Meteorology	2
Pre-induction	2
Nutrition	2
Physics	2
War chemistry	2
Economics of war	2
Motor mechanics	1
Photography	1
Blueprint reading	1
Spanish	1
History of Asia	1
Inter-American relations	1
Industrial arts	1
Personnel management	1
None	1
Total	45

addition to the courses added, eliminated, or changed in emphasis, another important effect of war has been reflected in the crowding into the previously existing courses of a technical or scientific nature. Four large eastern institutions, for example, report heavy increases in engineering, physics, mathematics, technology, and like subjects In the matter of prospective additions to the curriculum, one large eastern women's college has announced new courses to begin shortly, designed to train men and women to decipher codes in French, Spanish, German, and Italian as well as other courses in aerial photography and photogrammetry—all courses for war.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

After only a year of war, the effects on the curriculum, especially on the high-school and college levels, have been pronounced. These effects have been reflected more, thus far, in the addition of new courses and new emphases in old courses than in the dropping of courses. Although the elimination of courses has, apparently, just begun, the early indications are toward the discontinuing of foreign languages and the social studies, and the courses added are overwhelmingly of a vocational and technical nature. The shift in class enrollment is toward the scientific-technical area rather than toward the "cultural" area, and the prospective additions to the curriculum appear also to augment this trend.

It would be illogical to expect the addition of large numbers of courses in the scientific-technical area and the crowding of the previously existing courses in the same area without significant repercussions in the functioning of the institution as a whole. Such changes must assume additions to the teaching staff, or see that the staff is sufficiently versatile to "double" in the new courses if they are to be taught effectively, and, unless other subjects are dropped in proportions relative to the additions, new teachers will have to be added—the versatility of the staff notwithstanding. The very nature of the new courses renders them more costly than many of the older, more bookish courses. These factors would seem to make increased school appropriations indispensable at a time when school appropriations face drastic reductions.

The past two decades in education have been characterized by great and increasing effort by many educators, holding many and varied philosophies, to effect changes in the curriculum, but the war, in only one year, has been a more powerful catalytic agent. Yet the changes wrought bring into focus two significant issues:

1. Can the interests of our youth and the effective prosecution of the war best be served by making the curriculum predominantly technical and scientific to the exclusion of other subjects and particularly of the social studies?
2. How permanent are these changes?

The effect of the extent to which the war has stimulated greater efficiency in developing America's youth into citizens more useful both to themselves and to the social order is incontrovertibly good, but, when

profound changes are being wrought in our educational pattern, they should be meticulously examined for their intrinsic values and broad implications

II. EFFECT ON ENROLLMENT

LESTER JAMES GOSIER

An inspection of Table IV will disclose a trend toward decreased enrollment, the colleges and secondary schools being most affected This is to be expected, since their students are of draft or employment age. Out of sixteen colleges responding, eleven (or 69 per cent) reported decreased enrollments; twenty-six out of forty-two secondary schools (or 62 per cent) disclosed decreases. For the elementary schools generally, "no effect" on enrollment was attributed to the war.

Secondary-school subjects with greatest increase included mathematics and sciences. Shop courses ranked second, while mechanical drawing and Spanish were third. Colleges revealed similar trends in the fields of mathematics and science. Slight increases were shown in engineering,

TABLE IV

EFFECT ON ENROLLMENT

Level	*Increase*	*Decrease*	*No Effect*	*Total*
Elementary school		1	6	7
Junior high school		1	3	4
Senior high school	8	26	8	42
Kindergarten–12B*	2	3	3	8
Higher education	4	11	1	16
Conversion	2			2
Total	16	42	21	79

* "Kindergarten–12B" refers to responses covering *entire* school systems, embracing both elementary and secondary education

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drawing, and the industrial arts. Some increases were shown in practical arts on the junior-high school level. Elementary schools reported nothing.

Foreign languages represented twenty three out of thirty-four cases of decrease in enrollment in specific subjects in the secondary schools. Among colleges, the social studies showed greatest curtailment; slight decreases were noted in other fields Junior high schools reported small increases in academic courses.

Male enrollment showed greatest decrease on the college level, with nine of the ten institutions responding to this phase of the questionnaire reporting losses. Twenty-five of the thirty-three secondary schools listed decreased enrollment for boys. Decreases on other levels were negligible.

Female enrollments on college and secondary-school levels followed a similar pattern. Seven out of sixteen colleges answering showed losses while twelve of thirty secondary schools noted decreases. On other levels the losses were slight.

Three of the sixteen colleges reported "no effect" on female enrollment as did sixteen of the thirty secondary schools. None of the colleges and only seven secondary schools reported "no effect" upon their respective male registration.

SUMMARY

Great fluctuation of total enrollment was noted on the college and secondary-school levels. Both colleges and secondary schools showed greatest losses in male registrants. Similar losses were noted on these levels in female registrants. However, female decreases were not as severe since three colleges and sixteen secondary schools reported their female registrations as not being affected.

CONCLUSION

Some indication of the emphasis upon the fields of mathematics and science for the duration can be seen. The absence of heavy registration for general shop courses might indicate (1) a death of pre-induction courses in our smaller secondary schools and colleges or (2) that the date of survey preceded the general establishing of formal pre-induction courses. Junior high schools, elementary schools, "entire systems," and conversions are little affected as regards their enrollment and subject matter taught.

III. EFFECT ON SCHOOL SERVICES

STEPHEN G. RICH

In all, seventy-one cases of additions to school services and twenty-one cases of deletions of such services (partial or complete) have been reported. The fact that more is being required of the schools, in both quantity and variety of services, is the conspicuous meaning of this report.

Eight cases (four in senior high school, four in college) were reported of establishment of an adult-education program connected with the war. This is by far the largest number of cases reported for any change in school services Services of a noneducational sort (in the usual sense of that term) account for twenty of the seventy-one cases reported These include sale of war stamps, salvage, rationing, first-aid courses, identification tags, etc, and are fairly evenly spread over the entire field from elementary schools to colleges.

The remarkable feature is the scattering of the additions over an immense variety of activities No less than thirty-four additions were listed. It is clear that there is no uniformity in the demand made on the schools or the demands which are complied with

The deletions are twenty in all, with thirteen in the high-school range and seven in colleges The elementary schools are hardly affected at all in this respect. Decreased bus service and extracurricular activities (*including interscholastic competitions*) are the only items reported by more than one person replying; and of these four reports of dropping of the extracurricular doings are at the top. Only sixteen different deletions are mentioned.

The net effect is an impression that there is no clear understanding as to what should be added or what should be deleted to meet war conditions We are still in the experimental stage. Individualism of superintendents and systems seems to run riot here One may suspect that the war is being used as an excuse to add or drop whatever those in command of a school or system would long have liked to add or delete.

This should not be considered either an evil or a pessimistic conclusion It merely points out that we still have far to go in even understanding what school services do or do not contribute to the war effort It is a healthy sign of growth and of independent activity

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IV. EFFECT ON STUDENT MORALE

WILLIAM H. SEE

Out of eleven junior high and elementary schools, only two, one from each division, made comments. The elementary school comment states that vocational guidance has been introduced in the eighth grade; the junior high school, that there is a problem of adjusting classes to curriculum changes and in addition there is emphasis on character development.

Twenty two high schools reported an increased emphasis and need for guidance. An apparent defect is noted in the guidance program, which must be cautioned against. Steering pupils into obvious war occupations

TABLE V

EFFECT ON STUDENT MORALE

Level	*Improved*	*Weakening*	*None*	*Blank*	*Total*
Elementary school	3	1	2	1	7
Junior high school	3		1		4
High school	27	6	8	1	42
Kindergarten-12B	7	1			8
Higher education	11	1	1	3	16
Conversion	1	1			2
Total	52	10	12	5	79

such as nursing and engineering may be doing an injustice to those whom the guidance program is meant to help. Some means of keeping a control against an overpopulated nurse's and engineer's field in the future must be organized. The guidance director must not find an easy way out because it is true that the two mentioned fields are urgently needed in wartime. Instead he must realize that if a boy shows ability in mathematics, etc., not only must engineering be considered, but also architecture, astronomy, teaching, and a long list of occupations. It is to be hoped that the whole subject of guidance might receive more serious attention both now and in the future.

The special problems resulting from the war claim our particular attention. The responses of the elementary and junior high schools do not

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indicate any serious problems resulting from the war. The junior high schools made no comments; one elementary school mentioned two:

1. Training pupils to use tools
2. Training pupils to eat hot dishes daily

In contrast, the high schools mention important and pressing problems. Falling registers are mentioned by nine schools This is caused by pupils dropping out of school in order to secure jobs. Unfortunately, no mention is made of the age of the pupils, their I.Q ratings, or their economic backgrounds. Eight schools mention the problem of the desire to enlist. Since the Selective Service Act has been amended to include the teen-age group, that problem has been taken out of the hands of the high school.

A far more important problem mentioned by eight schools is that of uncertainty and anxiety among older boys who are giving up planning for the future. The democratic countries arrayed against the dictatórships must evolve a program of certainty and faith in the future, or else the winning of the war will be a hollow victory. Perhaps wartime is the most important time for a nation to emphasize its cultural heritage, the great accomplishments of all humanity, so that the boys may be imbued with the great desire to help win the war and to "stick around" during the peace to see that the methods of honorable sharing among nations be enforced We have a great heritage; it is the school's job to bring it before the pupils. The war is an unpleasant interruption in the onward march of humanity's progress toward higher standards of living

To a lesser degree, the following special problems were enumerated:

1. Increased absence and lateness
2. Excusing students because of afterschool work
3. Indifference on the part of students
4. Parents tired; see effects on children
5. Afterschool detention impossible because of afterschool employment
6. Fewer average students; some more conscientious, others much less
7. Transportation problem

These problems would be far less in evidence if the schools made a more determined attempt to teach the boys and girls that "these are the things we are fighting for" It is not the business of the school to engage in the fighting, but it is the business of the school to hold before the nation the lessons of the past, to inspire the present; and to dare to dream of the future.

Some means should be found, whether it be done by the schools or by

some cooperating agency, to care for the children of war-industry working parents. The lack of parental control has increased the discipline problems at school. It would seem that this problem can be approached from two directions: (1) from the agencies helping the home and (2) by the school doing its true job (and the job it is best qualified to do) of teaching and inspiring with much less emphasis on the propagandizing and training in war.

Table V indicates that fifty-two schools report an improved student morale. Yet from the special problems mentioned, more than ten schools must be suffering a weakening morale of which they may not be aware How do we test the state of the student's morale? Is it by his excitement in the competitive buying of war stamps? Is it by the amount of scrap collected? Is it by his boasting of what he'll do to the enemy when he gets there? Is it by the many outward signs of excitement and natural adolescent exuberance? Or shall we best test student morale by the quiet determination in the mind and eye and hand of the student? Can we not best test student morale by the improved attendance record, the elimination of tardiness, the improved quality of work?

V. EFFECT ON SCHOOL ROUTINES

JULIUS LOEB

The war has had very little effect upon the prevailing routines in the school That is apparent in the elementary schools, and becomes more obvious as one progresses to higher education Three of the seven elementary schools reporting mention "no effect." Two of the eight kindergarten-12B schools make the same report Six schools in higher education reported no changes whatever, whereas one reported only a slight disruption of routine. The reports indicate, however, that the war has had a greater effect upon assemblies than upon any other routine. Such is especially the case of the high schools, twenty-one of which reported a greater emphasis upon patriotic assemblies The elementary schools likewise report an increasing stress upon patriotic as well as humorous assemblies as morale builders. Only one school mentions curtailed emphasis, due to the fact that the assembly hall is located in the upper story of the structure, a vulnerable location. Among the miscellaneous items reported

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by the high schools are increased homeroom activities and fewer student parades

In higher education, assemblies are influenced by a stress on the discussion of war and postwar themes In general, conversion schools are the least affected of all, since they normally had but a minimum of routine, and no assemblies whatever

NEW ROUTINES

Every school reporting on this question mentions the initiation of some new routine. All schools have inaugurated air-raid drills. This is to be expected, as it is a governmental requirement. A more detailed study of air-raid drills would show their effect upon the length of the recitation period, and upon the recitation itself.

Schools are required to distribute identification tags to the students. However, only one school mentioned "tag distribution" as a new routine. Those who failed to mention it probably did so due to a feeling of its commonplaceness One junior high school reports a physical-education Victory Corps, and another, a Junior Red Cross.

The high schools show a greater general effect of the war upon new routines There, the physical-education departments have organized physical toughening and first-aid courses. Additional activities in the high schools are the sale of war bonds, civilian defense activities, scrap drives, homemaking courses, and special guard services. Such activities are possible due to the higher ages of many of the students, particularly in the upper classes.

An increase of war industries in several districts, with a resulting strain upon existing transportation facilities, has had its effect upon the hours of five of the schools reporting, since the school hours were changed in order to stagger the transportation load.

The colleges have initiated activities similar to those of the secondary schools with the additional activities of inspecting for fire hazards and school "sings" Although one college reports "model airplane building," it is not to be assumed that this is exceptional, since many high schools and even junior high schools are doing the same.

Of the two conversion schools reporting, one states that it holds its air-raid drills and adheres to dimout regulations, whereas the other is so busy producing needed manpower that it has not had an air-raid drill, and reports that it has no time for assemblies

VI USE OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND FACILITIES

ARTHUR HUGHSON

Use by students. The impact of war has caused the greatest change in the use of high-school facilities, as compared with other levels of education. Twelve high schools report an increased use by students while eleven others are now used less. In only fourteen of the thirty-five reporting high schools has there been no change in use of school facilities.

TABLE VI

EFFECT ON THE USE OF SCHOOL FACILITIES BY STUDENTS

Level	*Increase*	*Decrease*	*No Change*	*No Data*	*Total*
Elementary school	3	3	1		7
Junior high school	2		2		4
High school	12	11	12	7	42
Kindergarten-12B	1		6	1	8
Higher education	5	7	4		16
Conversion	1	1			2
Totals	24	22	25	8	79

A similar situation is to be found in the higher education level Only in four of sixteen reporting institutions of higher learning has there been no change. A simple explanation is readily found for decreased use of school facilities in the high school and in institutions of higher education; namely, the fact that it is from these institutions that our army is being recruited. Increase in use, on the other hand, can be explained on the basis of recognition both by the school authorities and by the community that further study will help both the individual and the group. In many instances, the school has become the community center

Use by community. There has been a tremendous increase in use of school facilities by the community. Of sixty-six schools reporting, forty-five indicate increased use. Only fourteen show no change. The greatest decrease (five) is shown by the high school.

Additional sessions Of seventy-six schools reporting, thirty-nine show an increase in sessions while thirty-seven show a decrease. Ten schools

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report that they are running on a twenty-four-hour schedule It would be interesting to know why thirty-seven schools show a decrease in the number of sessions. Could it be the result of loss of students to the Army, Navy, etc.?

Mimeographing, textbooks, and supplies. Here there is a definite reduction in use due to the war impact because of "freezing," shortage, conservation, etc—this in spite of the fact that there has been an increased demand for mimeographing rationing notices, air-raid precautions, etc. This would indicate a curtailment of traditional or standard types of mimeographing.

In general, the trend in textbooks follows the trend in supplies While a great many new textbooks are being ordered for understanding the war

TABLE VII

EFFECT ON THE USE OF SCHOOL FACILITIES BY THE COMMUNITY

Level	*Increase*	*Decrease*	*No Change*	*No Data*	*Total*
Elementary school	4	1	1	1	7
Junior high school	4				4
High school	21	5	7	9	42
Kindergarten-12B	5	1	2		8
Higher education	10		3	3	16
Conversion	1		1		2
Totals	45	7	14	13	79

TABLE VIII

ADDITIONAL SESSIONS RESULTING FROM THE WAR

Level	*Yes**	*No*	*No Data*	*Total*
Elementary school		7		7
Junior high school	1	3		4
High school	25	17		42
Kindergarten–12B	2	5	1	8
Higher education	9	6	1	16
Conversion	2			2
Totals	39	38	2	79

* 24-hour-schedule reported by 10 schools

effort, for pre-induction training, etc., fewer texts of the standard type are now available in the schools reporting.

CONCLUSIONS

The data presented in Tables VI, VII, VIII, and the study of mimeograph materials, textbooks, and supplies indicate definitely that the war impact has been felt by our educational system at every level. Each area, from kindergarten to the university, has been affected. Generally, increased demands have been made by the community upon these institutions in an "all-out" effort to aid the war. Wherever a loss of normal activity is evidenced (as in high school, etc.) it, too, is due to war demands, either in the form of materials or in the form of manpower.

VII. EFFECT ON TEACHER SUPPLY

IRA M. KLINE

Early withdrawals for service in the armed forces was heaviest in the secondary and college levels as the percentage of men in these areas is higher. Male teachers on the elementary level are not numerous and withdrawals for either types of service is inconsequential. As the acceleration of enlistments of women in the three service organizations has increased since November 1942 analysis of these data does not represent the situation today.

TABLE IX

PROBLEM OF TEACHERS BEING CALLED TO MILITARY SERVICE

Level	*No Effect*	*Slight*	*Serious*	*Total*
Elementary school	4	3		7
Junior high school		3	1	4
High school	5	24	13	42
Kindergarten–12B	3	5		8
Higher education	3	9	4	16
Conversion	1		1	2
Total	16	44	19	79

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TABLE X

PROBLEM OF TEACHERS BEING TAKEN UP BY INDUSTRY

Level	*No Effect*	*Slight*	*Serious*	*Total*
Elementary school	5	2		7
Junior high school	2	2		4
High school	17	20	5	42
Kindergarten–12B	4	4		8
Higher education	10	5	1	16
Conversion	1	1		2
Total	39	34	6	79

The withdrawal of teachers for employment in industry falls most heavily at the secondary-school level. This withdrawal is likewise accelerated as the intensity of war effort rises and demand for manpower and material increases. Demand for manpower has been nationwide but more vigorous in and around industrial areas Industrial needs draw most heavily from teachers of mathematics, science, and vocational fields The relatively high income of both men and women in industry under war production lures teachers from schools, especially in low salary areas The temporary character of industrial employment in a war crisis does not restrain or retard transfer. The degree to which teachers generally have been underpaid is now being recognized by those served by these teachers It is now obvious that the supply of qualified teachers is not inexhaustible.

The gravity of the problem of replacement is not adequately repre-

TABLE XI

PROBLEM OF REPLACEMENT OF TEACHERS

Level	*None*	*Slight*	*Serious*	*Total*
Elementary school	3	3	1	7
Junior high school		2	2	4
High school	3	20	19	42
Kindergarten–12B	1	2	5	8
Higher education	5	7	4	16
Conversion	1		1	2
Total	13	34	32	79

sented in Table XI. Available unemployed teachers have already been absorbed and the acute shortage of teaching personnel which several months ago was considered a myth has now been accepted as an actuality.

The adaptation of teachers to the serious conditions arising from withdrawals and the induction of large numbers of persons not previ-

TABLE XII

PROBLEM OF ADAPTATION OF TEACHERS

Level	*None*	*Slight*	*Serious*	*Total*
Elementary school	2	5		7
Junior high school		4		4
High school	11	23	8	42
Kindergarten–12B	1	4	3	8
Higher education	9	5	2	16
Conversion		1	1	2
Total	23	42	14	79

ously engaged regularly as teachers is difficult and may seriously impair the efficiency of education on all levels.

The survey reveals retraining and out-of-license teaching as the two outstanding methods of meeting the problem. These, however, may result in serious impairment of the quality of instruction The retraining of teachers under pressure as to time and extent cannot ensure a satisfactory standard of teaching service.

Out-of-license teaching may become actually vicious in its effect upon the standards for certification and quality of service No brief for existing standards of certification should be assumed; however, there are standards The development of existing standards represents an upward trend in kind, quality, and extent of preparation and has resulted in teachers whose teaching services have improved. Any expediency resorted to in keeping schools staffed during this or any other crisis should not destroy or impair existing standards.

The use of substitute teachers to occupy positions that should be filled by full-time teachers is also vicious. As a relief to the salary item of school budgets, it cannot be justified It deprives teachers of the income and

reward to which they are entitled, makes them mindful of their insecurity, deprives them of the ultimate benefits of retirement annuities, and limits the satisfaction and enjoyment to which teachers worthy of the name are entitled.

No considerable number of retired teachers will return to classrooms even if present restrictions on their employment be removed

We need to be zealous in our efforts to keep our education program at the highest possible level of efficiency for the duration. Postwar adjustments should be of less concern at this stage.

VIII DEMANDS MADE ON TIME OF TEACHERS

DOUGLAS G. GRAFFLIN

Intraschool duties added The most frequently mentioned additional intraschool duty of teachers was an increased load of pupils and/or classes. Only fifty per cent of those replying listed this heavier load specifically, another twenty-five per cent replying in generalities which could be construed to mean added work, such as, "many more," "yes."

Following increased load, in order of decreasing frequency, came war stamp and scrap drives, additional guidance activities, air-raid drill responsibilities, and first-aid teaching.

These replies confirm what one would have guessed would be the additional responsibilities of teachers in wartime If there is any surprising reply it is the one that indicates that schools have so early recognized the need for added guidance on the part of young people in wartime. This is encouraging

Extraschool duties added About fifty per cent of the schools replying listed rationing as an added demand on the teacher's out-of-school-hours time. Even allowing for the fact that a few of the replies were from private schools and colleges it is significant to note that not all teachers have rationing responsibilities

The other frequently mentioned demands on the time of school teachers' afterschool hours were such as any member of the community might expect: participation in the civilian defense program (plane spotters, auxiliary firemen, air-raid wardens, etc) and Red Cross activities. A few, six out of eighty, mentioned teaching courses for the civilian de-

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fense authorities and ten per cent replied that there were no additional demands upon their out-of-school time.

IX EFFECT ON SCHOOL FINANCE

ANTHONY J. FERRERO

Of the total number of schools reporting, 29 per cent show an increase in budget; 20 per cent show a decrease; 33 per cent show no effect, while the remaining 18 per cent make no report on this item. As for teachers' salaries, 29 per cent show an increase; 1 per cent (only one school) shows a decrease; 61 per cent show no effect, and 9 per cent make no report. The percentages are, of course, greatly influenced by the percentages of

TABLE XIII

EFFECT ON THE BUDGET

Level	*Increase*	*Decrease*	*No effect*	*Blank*	*Total*
Elementary school	1		3	3	7
Junior high school	2		1	1	4
Senior high school	14	11	13	4	42
Kindergarten–12B	4	1	3		8
Higher education	2	4	6	4	16
Conversion				2	2
Total	23	16	26	14	79

the senior high schools, since the latter constituted over half, 53 per cent, of the total number of schools reporting.

It would seem that the increase in budget, 29 per cent, corresponds to the increase in salary, 29 per cent. However, a glance at Tables XIII and XIV will reveal that these increases do not correspond school for school.

While there is a decrease in budget in 20 per cent of the cases, the decrease in teachers' salaries is negligible. Thus, the increase or maintenance of salaries has of necessity been at the sacrifice of other educational items.

The percentage of cases of increase in budget is just about offset by the percentage of decreases. In fact, there is no noticeable variation between increase, decrease, and no effect—20 per cent, 29 per cent, 33 per cent

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Hence, we cannot attribute either the increase or decrease in budget as an effect of the war. It seems that all we can say is that in some cases there has been an increase, in others a decrease following the declaration of war. Perhaps, these would be the same without a war.

TABLE XIV

EFFECT ON TEACHERS' SALARIES

Level	*Increase*	*Decrease*	*No Effect*	*Blank*	*Total*
Elementary school	1		6		7
Junior high school			3	1	4
Senior high school	11		29	2	42
Kindergarten–12B	5		3		8
Higher education	5	1	7	3	16
Conversion	1			1	2
Total	23	1	48	7	79

The numerous comments made by the respondents show a concerted agreement that budgets, and with them salaries, must be increased

" . teachers must be paid more "
" . . We hope to have reasonable increases soon."
" . . . An increase in budget is urgently needed "
" . It is hoped that some adjustment will be made for increased living costs "
" . increase being considered."

Almost all commented along this line.

We should compare the rather haphazard budgetary conditions represented in the tables with the situation in England. In that country, after years of war, in spite of the many pressing wartime needs, it was deemed both prudent and expedient actually to increase, systematically, the budget for education

The social and practical value of maximum educational provision has long since ceased to be a debatable issue There is danger, though, that in the immediate crisis the exigencies of the moment may leave us no other course than to accept and yield to the patently justifiable demands for further economies in education In the present upheaval, it is essential

that the financial structure of education remains secure We are engaged in a death struggle to preserve democratic government An adequately financed public education is the cornerstone of that democratic government.

X EFFECTS ON TEACHERS' OUTLOOKS

NORMAN R. HUNT

CHANGES ANTICIPATED—FOR THE DURATION

Fifty-five per cent of those answering the questionnaire anticipated a significant change in emphasis for the duration of the war from a formal, academic type of education to one of a more practical or functional nature. This change was characterized in many different ways. Some of the descriptive phrases follow: "a more functional use of the schools with less emphasis on the cultural," "increased attention to vocational education," "shift from academic to manual abilities," "pride in the ability to do," "a more realistic curriculum," "less distinction between the academic and vocational high schools." The adjectives "technical," "mechanical," and "industrial" were frequently used. Repeated mention was made of a greater emphasis on and interest in courses in science and mathematics Conversely, several persons reported an anticipated lessening of interest in the more purely academic subjects, particularly languages.

Fifteen per cent of those replying anticipated a loss of qualified teachers, particularly in the technical fields, though reference was also made to the migration expected from poorer paying communities to those able to offer better salaries Nine per cent expected to lose students to industries

The remaining answers indicated a wide variety of expected changes so different in nature as to prevent grouping. Some of the more interesting follow: "increased community service" (5),[1] "reduced revenue" (3), "more activities and duties for teachers" (3), "an accelerated program" (2), "lowering of the age when students might work in industries" (2), "greater emphasis on patriotism" (2), "nursery schools for children of working mothers" (2), "increase in part-time work of students" (2),

[1] Numbers in parenthesis indicate frequency of mention No number indicates only one such reply

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"increased juvenile delinquencies," "increased guidance and self-government," "shortening of the school day or year," "pupils and teachers more serious," "laxness in relation to standards," "an opening up of new, experimental ideas in the building of curriculum," "a more questioning attitude of mind on the part of educators and of the public generally."

POSTWAR CHANGES ANTICIPATED

Forty-two per cent of those answering believed that the change from an academic to a more immediately practical program would be continued after the war. This reaction was indicated by such expressions as "pragmatic subject matter with vocational emphasis," "greater flexibility in the whole educational establishment," "streamlining the curricula by eliminating courses that have been retained because of tradition," "emphasis on those fundamentals necessary for economic self-sufficiency," "more trade work," "get away from the white-collar idea," "from classical to practical," "the old academic high school will never return," "education for living," "duration changes will be made permanent." Frequently those who believed that education would become more realistic, to the extent that it would relate more directly to the manifold activities involved in making a living, believed also that the school would be required to assume even greater responsibilities for vocational guidance

Ten per cent indicated that they did not expect any change in education, but it was not clear whether they meant that postwar education would not differ materially from the kind existing during the emergency or whether they felt there would be no change from that offered before the war. The latter would seem more likely to be the case.

All other answers scattered widely as will be apparent from the following. "the Federal Government will aid education and equalize educational opportunities" (5), "emphasis on international understanding and tolerance of others" (3), "an influx of students who failed to finish their education" (3), "possible addition or extension of secondary education into the college field" (2), "decrease in enrollment," "fall in teacher wages," "increase in juvenile delinquency," "decrease in school support," "occupational rehabilitation," "deflation of 'progressive baloon' in interest of effective teaching," "growth in child-care centers," "increased recognition of services of teachers," "decline in vocational emphasis and rise in cultural," "greater emphasis on democracy and democratic procedures in education."

PERTINENT RESEARCHES BEING CONDUCTED

Thirty per cent of the questionnaires indicated that some experiments or research activities were being conducted in the school systems reporting. The two most often mentioned were: "checking on adaptability of present courses to the war needs" (6) and "investigating the effectiveness of our guidance activities" (5). Other investigations reported were: "employment of pupils and follow-up on graduates" (4), "student inventory being prepared," "value of lectures on the democratic way of life," "adaptability of women to certain machine-shop operations," "effect of class size on instruction," "devising tests to predict success in mechanical drawing," "investigating knowledge of aims and issues of the war," "integrating arithmetic with other subjects," "value of part-time work in secondary education," "adapting college courses in mathematics and physics to secondary school."

CHANGES DESIRED FOR THE DURATION

As might be expected, the greatest range of answers came in this and the succeeding phases of the survey. To the first part, "What changes would you like to see for the duration of the war?" twenty-seven per cent emphasized the realistic as opposed to the academic type of education. The phrases used were very similar to those used in answering the earlier question: "viewing education realistically," "greater emphasis on vocational and scientific education with adequate guidance," "complete shift to training for useful employment," "all high-school students should have vocational training of some sort," "need for an expanded industrial-arts program."

Ten per cent wanted no change from prewar standards. All the other answers were widely distributed over many different subjects, as follows: "increased teacher salaries" (6), "greater cooperation between industries and vocational training" (3), "decrease in class size" (3), "planning school day to encourage part-time employment" (3), "drop Regents" (2), "greater financial support of education by State and Federal Government" (2), "greater flexibility in licensing teachers" (2), "removal of rationing duties or lightening teaching load" (2), "increased participation of teachers in war effort" (2), "a better defined policy on the part of government toward education" (2), "higher education made available to poor students with ability," "real professionalization of teaching," "avoid undue emphasis on technical courses for all pupils," "master fundamentals," "reduce graduation requirements by making languages and social

studies elective," "greater school-community cooperation, with community participation in planning the curricula."

POSTWAR CHANGES DESIRED

To the question, "What changes would you like to see in the postwar world?" the answers again clustered about those changes thought necessary to make education more practical, but whereas forty-two per cent indicated that they thought such a change would take place only twenty-five per cent indicated that they looked on it with favor. The descriptive phrases were similar to those used previously: "we are too college preparatory minded," "get away from glorifying the white-collar man," "high schools should give pupils something they could use to earn a living," "a more realistic philosophy of education actually applied," "we need greater flexibility in our educational program," "greater integration of the schools with the life outside the schools," "greater attention to the needs of the noncollege group"

The other replies touched on many different aspects of education. "equalization of education through Federal aid" (5), "better salaries for teachers" (4), "increased public respect for the teaching profession" (2), "propagandize to eliminate isolationist thinking" (2), "reduce class size" (2), "much greater emphasis on guidance" (2), "more opportunities for democratic participation within the school" (3), "adequate budgets, community centered schools," "keep fundamental family and church relationships," "more drilling on the 3 R's," "courses for bright students only," "one-year military training for all high-school graduates," "return to emphasis on spiritual values," "tenure for all teachers," "classroom teachers should have more influence in curriculum revision," "afterschool recreational services," "eliminate specialization below the eleventh grade," "debunking schools of education so that the schools can do a good job," "teaching through mastery of what is taught," "prepare against disbanding the junior high school by a better understanding of its function by trained teachers," "more attention to personality," "constantly increased flexibility based upon an understanding of individual differences."

CONCLUSION

Three facts seem clear from this survey—educators are sensitive to the impact of the war on the schools, they accept the role that education can play in helping to win the war, and they are strenuously at work on the immediate task of making those adaptations of curriculum and personnel

MOBILIZING A SCHOOL FOR WAR

LUCIAN LAMM

At the High School of Science in New York City the responsibility for the coordination of wartime activities is centered in (1) the principal and his heads of departments; (2) the guidance committee, which advises and programs all pupils, (2) the faculty advisory council, whose concern is chiefly the interests of the staff; and (4) the steering committee, which initiates and supervises the wartime program in its numerous aspects.

The steering committee makes periodic appraisals of the school's war endeavors, examines new possibilities and procedures, and suggests modifications. Under its general aegis comes a great variety of activities most of which are supervised by committees of the faculty, or of the faculty and the student body. The following are examples of such activities:

The defense council has jurisdiction over air-raid precautions. A committee on war courses attends to pre-induction and pre-flight curricula. A committee on the High School Victory Corps supervises the conversion of the extracurriculum, and enrolls properly qualified pupils. A committee on teachers' courses is the coördinator of in-service courses given by our teachers for those who wish to qualify for out-of-license teaching and for other purposes (such as first-aid certificate). Numerous other committees, in which pupils play a large part, are devoted to the sale of bonds and stamps, salvage drives, books for those in service, contributions to the Red Cross and to Allied war relief, blood donations, collation of literature on the war, bazaars, and other types of sales drives for numerous war-relief purposes, aids to teachers and to the C.D.V O. in the event of an air raid, etc.

Every subject department has, in one way or another, adapted its

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curriculum to the war need without sacrificing, however, basic values.

WARTIME GUIDANCE DEMANDS

W. G. FORDYCE

A questionnaire submitted to all students by the dean of girls at the Euclid Central High School, Euclid, Ohio, disclosed, among other data, the following facts about 684 high-school students.

Parent employment

283 fathers employed in the day shift in defense plants
106 fathers employed in the night shift in defense plants
46 mothers employed in the day shift in defense plants
42 mothers employed in the night shift in defense plants

Military service

111 have brothers in military service

Student employment

128 boys working at legitimate paid part-time jobs
52 girls working at legitimate paid part-time jobs

Miscellaneous chore type jobs (not included in above group)

60 girls care for children part time
28 girls do housework part time for pay
21 boys earn money for care of lawns, etc
41 boys carry papers

In commenting upon the way the war has affected their family life, 101 children mentioned the long hours most of their parents now worked. Statements such as "We hardly ever see my father" were common. Alternating shifts worked by father, mother, or

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both cause complications in meals, sleep, and recreation Parents working nights must sleep days and the influence of the day-sleeping parent is lost. The seven-day work week cuts family recreation out of their lives, leads to frayed nerves and to much unsupervised recreation on the part of the child. Families are divided when some member leaves for the armed services, and further complications arise when a girl whose husband is gone comes home. This means more crowded living conditions in some homes, jealousies on the part of children still in school, and actual economic pressures.

Irregular meals develop from the alternating shifts and varying times One mother prepares several breakfasts each morning. The mother who works is trying to carry two jobs—factory and home. The implications of this type of family situation are clear. In addition, it brings additional responsibilities to the children. Comments on the questionnaire indicate that probably 75 per cent of the students in our high school have duties in connection with caring for the home, cooking, marketing, etc., that have heretofore been done by the mother.

Eighty-seven commented that they were deprived of luxuries that they had commonly accepted before the war Several youngsters commented that they had moved from farms to the city with problems of adjustment arising from this change in living. In addition, there were a number of cases in which the war had destroyed a small business or was destroying it, and the father's going to work in a war plant had changed their entire way of living.

The school has tried to anticipate to the best of its ability some of the problems indicated in this study Group work with boys has placed emphasis upon maintaining health, particularly through regularity in hours of sleep and meals In the girls' guidance groups, the teachers have directed them, wherever possible, to their responsibility for maintaining morale in the home, by assisting wherever possible in maintaining a normal home life Questions of individ-

ual morality and personal freedom are also considered. Counselors and homeroom teachers have held individual conferences with all children from homes where both parents are employed and have attempted to give individual guidance and suggestions in these cases. The questionnaires used in the original study were returned to the homeroom teachers and have been made the basis for individual consultations.

All students who indicated that they were employed were checked as to employment, age, and the legality of their job. The attendance department increased its vigilance where these particular children were concerned, so that the school might exercise a restraining influence upon illegal work hours and illegal work. The tremendous growth of industrial war work in our community, without any increase in the staff of inspectors from the State Department of Industrial Relations, has intensified the school's problem in dealing with the exploitation of children by employers who see in this condition an opportunity to avoid legal consequences. The school's service to the community can be most effective through an understanding of the problems the students are facing. The work in guidance groups, homerooms, and individual counseling has never been more important.

GUIDANCE OF WARTIME STUDIES

EARL W. SEIBERT

A most significant activity in Belleville High School along the war effort is the classification of boys and girls into the ability levels used by the Army in its classification procedures. Objective test scores on all pupils have been assembled on individual Cumulative Pupil Record Cards. These provide an inventory of the pupil's general intellectual level, his achievement in various subjects, and cer-

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tain specialized abilities. Each pupil is assigned to one of five ability levels: superior, above-average, average, below-average, and lowest level.

Pupils are asked to elect school subjects in line with their abilities so that there may be no waste of manpower in the school training program. Every boy *and girl* who has the ability to do the work is strongly urged to take algebra, geometry, physics, etc. In the light of shortages of workers and of materials for critical occupations, high-school boys and girls must give up their much cherished freedom of choice prerogative and select those subjects that will provide the skills and knowledge that the nation needs. On the other hand, prerequisites have been set up for each subject and specific pupils will have a priority of choice to these subjects because of their ability-level classification. Pupils will not be asked, "What subjects do you want to take next year?" but, "What subjects will be most profitable for you and for the nation?"

To prepare the pupils for this philosophy of guidance, a unit has been prepared by the guidance director on "Growing into an Occupation"[1] for use of teachers, pupils, and parents.

Occupational booklets have been assembled in the school library and are filed according to the code classifications in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* Literature on colleges and training schools are available. Materials have been assembled on the opportunities in the various branches of the armed services for the use of students who face induction immediately. These boys are given a preliminary interview to ease their minds about the whole process of induction. They have been referred to a discussion of the personnel classification of the United States Army. They have been informed of the urgency of making a good impression during the induction activities.

[1] This was reported in the November 1942 issue of *The School Review*

EDUCATING THE CONSUMER FOR WARTIME LIVING

MURRAY BANKS

The war has given a tremendous impetus to the need for consumer education. If we are to preserve our national unity, and work as one people for a victorious conclusion to the present struggle, our people must be informed with regard to the purposes and the necessity for accepting wartime controls of their economic and social life.

Our program of consumer education during the emergency emphasizes not only privation, but suggests compensating factors as well. Consumers are taught to keep in mind, in an attempt to promote high standards, the fact that they are entitled to specific and complete information about the products they buy, and to study available national standards.

We are educating against "scare buying" and hoarding, two conditions which are brought about by fear of shortages and ignorance of fundamental economic principles which show that such practices actually foster the shortages they seek to combat, and, what is more serious, tend to heighten the trend toward inflationary measures.

An attempt is made to convey the idea that the more war bonds we purchase the less chance there is for inflation; the less goods we buy, the smaller the likelihood for prices to rise disproportionately, and the greater the funds available for military needs

Real shortages in consumer goods that already confront us, plus decrease in real wages, which the war has brought, have made a new and completely revised program of consumer training imperative. Students are taught to conserve what they have, and to extract the last possible ounce of use out of the things they already own. "Less shopping—more mending" is the theme. Attention is given to the

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question of salvaging materials, since vast quantities of materials needed for war production are continually being discarded because their worth is not realized.

Thus we are attempting to equip the consumer to fight the war on the home front by revising the old-line emphasis in consumer education to a newer and more dynamic emphasis upon education for economic well-being in a war era.

OBTAINING SUPPLIES FOR SHOP CLASSES

RUDOLF SKRIVANEK

The Essex County Vocational and Technical High School was specifically set up to teach trades and technical occupations. It has always had an abundance of the finest industrial equipment and the necessary supplies to function efficiently and adequately Since Pearl Harbor, however, new supplies could be obtained only through priority ratings and priorities permitted only the purchase of something if it was available.

Since strategic materials and supplies were not always available, a search for substitutes was undertaken. These were found in junk yards and with dealers of salvaged material All our steel has come from such sources To get copper for repair and maintenance of electrical control equipment, old switchboards were purchased. Two thousand pinball machines confiscated by the county prosecutor's office furnished wire and electrical material. Wire for practice work comes from field coils of old motors and generators.

Our machine shop is making 300 center drills, 100 chuck wrenches, 100 chipping hammers, 100 lathe sleeves, 100 lathe centers, toolmakers' squares, riveting bucking bars, and in our manufacturing department we are making 300 calipers and dividers. The chemistry department is making substitutes for our soldering classes

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and for the machine classes. We braze ends of tool bits to carbon steel.

The electrical power classes maintain the four hundred direct-current motors in the building

To maintain our operating equipment a metal spraying machine has been purchased which will build up worn parts so they can be remachined to original specifications.

Instead of Brown and Sharpe or Starrett precision tools, we are accepting little known substitutes. These substitutes will be well known after the emergency, because they are giving good account of themselves.

A request for a priority will be filled out only when:

1. We cannot make it.
2. We cannot secure acceptable used equipment
3. It is vitally necessary to our operation.
4. We can conscientiously say that the war effort does not need it more than we do.

Measured by these standards, one will find that there is little excuse for asking for priorities except in very exceptional cases.

American schools must assume a realistic attitude and prove that they possess the initiative and ingenuity with which they are credited by doing business as usual with unusual business methods.

TEACHING AIDS FOR THE WARTIME PROGRAM

LILI HEIMERS

As a part of its contribution to the war effort, the New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, offers the services of its War Information Center and Teaching Aids Service, both departments of the College Library.

Lili Heimers directs the Teaching Aids Service of the New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey

The College was designated by the School and College Civilian Morale Service of the United States Office of Education as one of the three Key War Information Centers in New Jersey colleges. The information center is on the free mailing lists of 129 organizations, distributed as follows:

Government agencies, Federal, State, and local	37
Propaganda and information services of the United Nations	13
Associations for social and economic betterment, postwar planning, etc.	5
Commercial organizations publishing informational and morale-building materials	13
Miscellaneous	12

These materials, as well as books, pamphlets, etc., from the library of the College, are classified by subject and available for use at all times. In addition, the library has published two selected lists, with supplements, on Civilian Morale, and Postwar Planning and the Schools. These sell at a nominal sum.

A number of lists of Visual and Teaching Aids are now available to curriculum laboratories, State and city boards of education, libraries, museums, and individual teachers throughout the country Since they are up-to-date, the materials in these lists and in the files fit into the wartime program outlined in the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals* for October 1942.

To date, lists have been prepared in the following fields: American Democracy, Aviation, Biology, Chemistry, English, French, Health Education, Mathematics, Music, Pan-Americanism, and Spanish These sell at nominal sums; all except the Foreign Language lists are available gratis to librarians in the public schools of New Jersey.

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MARTHA R. MCCABE

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EDITORIAL

The November 1942 issue of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY began its editorial with these quotations: "We are United Nations at war" "Peace must lead to a cooperative world order with the four freedoms for all people."

Readers of THE JOURNAL are concerned with the problems of translating this hope into reality. They, therefore, are interested in keeping abreast of any community organization that shows effective progress in this direction.

It is the purpose of this issue to review the significance of consumers' cooperation in relation to the groping of men everywhere for a way of life that meets the practical and ethical needs of the day. Cooperators believe that the world we will have tomorrow is being fashioned in our day-to-day relationships now They believe that international cooperation is feasible only as a foundation for cooperative attitudes and methods exist within each nation and within each community. They believe that consumer cooperatives are unique in providing the mechanics for applying principles of equity, universality, and brotherhood in everyday business They believe in "atomic action"—in tackling the problems that face all men as soon as two or three are ready and willing.

The authors of this series of articles have all had firsthand experience with the impact of consumers' cooperation on the community, either as educators who have made a point of following the development of the cooperative movement closely, or as educators on the staffs of the movement itself.

An attempt has been made to summarize the place of consumer cooperatives in the American scene, to analyze the ways in which cooperatives

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function as an educational force in the community, to sketch the educational philosophy and methods used within the movement itself, to interpret the ways in which teachers find that a study of consumers' cooperation contributes to the vitality of the curriculum, and finally to outline several problems of education on which the leaders of the cooperative movement would welcome help.

Except for the youngest members of the profession, teachers are likely to remember that "cooperatives" received all of a paragraph in their textbooks which summed up to about this: "Consumer Cooperatives are democratic forms of business enterprise which appear to have made an important contribution to the public welfare in England and the Scandinavian countries, but which have never developed extensively in the United States." The information in the pages which follow will reveal that any one whose knowledge of the cooperative movement is limited to such a recollection from his student days has a lot of catching up to do.

One of the country's leading publishers has a list of twelve books dealing with cooperatives. The libraries of our major educational institutions have dozens of references to cooperatives in their files, and any one trying to keep abreast of current books and magazine articles dealing with the co-ops finds himself hard pressed.

The National Education Association and the Progressive Education Association both have standing committees on consumers' cooperation. The impressive range of endorsements by all variety of church, school, farm, labor, and political groups and leaders is convincing evidence that the cooperative movement transcends partisan issues.

Our basic value of democracy, with authority vested in the people instead of in a state or ruling class, is slowly demonstrating its power in controlling the direction of American social change. We had to borrow our basic institutions from foreign cultures. Slowly the autocratic patterns of family, school, the army, and business are yielding. The change necessitates inventions of new social patterns and organizations. The democratic surge is still pressing on inconsistencies among our institutions. The consumer cooperative movement is an important part of this trend.

Next year will mark the hundredth anniversary of the launching of the first cooperative to use the now world-famous Rochdale Principles. Many would concede that cooperatives offered a *better way* of organizing business in the public interest in the early days of the Industrial Rev-

olution. Many are coming to feel that cooperatives are an *essential way* of organizing business if today's available abundance is to be distributed and democratic relationships and controls extended in the process.

Perhaps not all readers of this issue will agree, but most will be interested in knowing more about a movement which claims to offer the world an economic alternative to statism of the left or of the right and backs its claim with the inspiring evidence of having made it work for a century.

ROBERT L. SMITH

Robert L. Smith is Education Director of Eastern Cooperative League, which is the regional federation of consumers cooperatives on the North Atlantic seaboard Mr Smith has been closely associated with the development of the educational materials and methods required in connection with the growth from 20 cooperative societies in 1934 to over 200 at the present time in the 12 States served by Eastern Cooperative League

COOPERATIVES, AN AMERICAN PATTERN

C. J. MCLANAHAN

We know that social change is inexorable and that, even if we wished to, we cannot turn back. Change will grow out of the past toward the aspirations of the people Before we begin to chart what this course is likely to be in the economic field, it would be well to take note of certain governing factors. These factors will in a large measure determine not only the direction but also the success of the method that America chooses.

1. *The method adopted must solve certain definite problems.* It must be able to eliminate unemployment, make depressions impossible, and guarantee to every man the necessities of life if he is willing to put forth a reasonable effort to obtain them These are absolutes. There may be some groping around to find the method that meets these requirements and valuable time may be lost but, like a lodestone seeking its polar point, the people of the world cannot stop until they find a total solution.

2. *The method chosen must be within the framework of a collective or interdependent society.* We live in a world that has shrunk so small that to try to live in isolation is simply to guarantee disaster The whole trend of the last 25 years is proof of the folly of isolationism. Methods that deny this need of working together may be tried but, because of their unworkableness, they will be dropped. We can only hope that disas-

ter is not brought down upon us while still clutching the old idea that it is noble to live alone.

3. *The method adopted will follow the cultural pattern of America.* It will be an evolution out of our past and will bear many of the traces of our earlier customs and mores. Biological life and civilization both show evidences of advance through mutations, but in the main the logical evolutionary pattern is the one that is adhered to. Inventions are new combinations of old elements. Cultural elements are borrowed only when they are related to accepted patterns. Culture changes through persistence and accumulation.

IS THIS THE ROAD?

Having set down these conditions which will determine the road we must and will take, the question can now be asked, "What method meets these requirements?" It will undoubtedly be one that combines many patterns. Not only has this country been a melting pot for peoples, but it has been a melting pot of ideas and the future is bound to be the result of the fusing of many past beliefs and practices.

Already we can begin to discern certain of the patterns that are forming in the fabric of tomorrow's method. More and more is the consumer cooperative movement being recognized and brought to the fore because it seems to measure up to the requirements of the road ahead.

1. The cooperative movement has already given evidence in Finland and Sweden that it can solve the problem of unemployment and depression and provide for an equitable sharing in the resources of the nation. Risto Ryti, Governor of the Bank of Finland, said in 1939 "Cooperatives control the price level in Finland." The *Monthly Bulletin* of the Bank of Finland reported that in August 1936 there were 996 unemployed in Finland and owing to the disappearance of unemployment the compilation of statistics was discontinued. It is an economic system that works. It differs entirely from the present system in that it is a cost system rather than a profit system and in that it starts with the consumer and not the producer. In these revolutionary principles, it has the possibility of succeeding where the present system can no longer function.

It proceeds in this fashion. People come together as consumers—they decide on what they need. They buy these things for themselves. Then they begin to make them in their own factories. Any amount above cost in any of these transactions goes back to the people themselves. Since

production is always for needs and use, and since there is no limit to our needs, there is no unemployment. Since people always buy back and use what they produce, the cycle of depression disappears. And with a distribution of all above cost, there is an equitable distribution of the resources of the nation.

2. The cooperative movement is a road on which we can all travel. It is within the boundaries of a collective or interdependent society. By very nature it promotes integration. It is people working together. Membership is open to all. The union can be lasting because people unite as consumers, a basis on which there is no division of interest. There is in the practice of the cooperative movement a working out of the principle of brotherhood, the only basis on which social and economic life can ever be made secure.

3 The cooperative movement is in keeping with American traditions. It is an American pattern. From the time of the first barn raising and husking bee down to the present time, people of this country have worked together, side by side, in the give and take of grass-roots democratic action. They have believed in and fought for democracy and have had a deep appreciation of the rights of the other man. They have had a real sense of independence, a desire to do for themselves rather than have others do for them. Yet at the same time no people has a greater tradition of mutual aid.

All of these are virtues that are embedded deeply in the cooperative movement It gives full expression to these desires or drives of the American people. It is in itself a continuation of the barn-building technique of working together. It provides a method by which the belief in democracy can be satisfied in both political and economic life; it places people before money and exalts personality; it promotes independence by challenging people to help themselves, and yet it encourages mutual aid by giving its highest rewards to those who give the greatest help to their neighbors.

OTHER ROADS ARE STRANGE

The cooperative movement has many virtues that make it seem more desirable than other methods which now contest the field. In one way or another they do not measure up. But their greatest failing is that they do not follow naturally from anything that has gone before. We have had no Lenins or Trotzkys grieving in political exile for 20 years; we

have had no peasant class that has been ground under the foot of an oppressive and hated czar to make communism a natural choice. We have no stomach for dictatorship of our economic life and we have a basic belief in the freedom of the individual which provides rough going for fascism. We have a distaste for rule by civil servants, and we have always been a people who prided ourselves in being able to run our own affairs - two attitudes that should work against a reduction of government control over economic life after the war.

We may seize upon one of these philosophies as a way out of our present dilemma, but it will only be a choice for the moment. One can have great faith that American culture will eventually choose a more cooperative and a more democratic pattern. The causes that will lead us inevitably to such a choice are already set deep in our national being.

THE CLIMATE CHANGES

All of what has been said before may now lead to this question, "If it is so certain that the cooperative movement fits the American pattern and will eventually be a dominant factor in economic life, why has it not been chosen long ago?" In answer to that, I would say that while the soil has always been fertile, not until the present time has the climate been favorable.

Until recent years in this country, business as usual worked well enough. There was employment for most; depressions were not too frequent or too serious, and with enterprise every person could make a large enough income to cover necessities. There was no need, with continually expanding frontiers and markets, to adopt a different system of economy. To the extent to which expansion of capitalism diminishes, the necessity for a cooperative form of economic life increases.

There is evidence for this point of view from a study of cooperative development in Europe. Cooperatives caught hold earlier and grew faster in England, Sweden, Switzerland, and other countries because those countries reached a stage in their evolution where cooperatives filled a real need, and the boundaries of Europe became fixed long before they did in the United States, forcing the people to move much earlier toward a collective or interdependent type of economy. Sometimes the answer is given that cooperative stores have not developed more rapidly in the United States because the chain stores filled the need for low-cost distribution of merchandise, and there was, therefore, no place for the co-ops.

This view does not take into consideration the fact that there were co-operative stores in this country long before the chains were heard of. They simply did not grow because the climate was not ready for them. The chain stores expressed the philosophy of a growing limitless-frontier economy much better than did the cooperative.

To put it another way, a country begins to develop cooperatives when private or individual effort can no longer succeed of itself. More simply stated, a country eventually reaches a stage when the time is ripe for the development of cooperatives. It will develop them thereafter at a speed in proportion to which its traditions have been those of democracy, self-help, and mutual aid—basic American values

WHAT ARE THE FACTS?

If the above arguments are at all valid, cooperatives in this country should have been making their most rapid strides in the last twenty years, or since the private profit system began to fail in its function of serving the people A glance at the record shows that this has been the case. Co-operatives in America have been growing at an amazing rate since the period directly after World War I. From a few scattered organizations in 1920, there are today over 22,000 cooperative associations with a membership of more than sixteen million people. A large number of these cooperatives are federated into strong national organizations for united action, the Cooperative League for education and publicity and National Cooperatives, Inc., for pool buying and manufacture.

Detailed statistics as quoted in the pamphlet, *Here Is Tomorrow* by Wallace J. Campbell, are even more impressive:

> One sixth of all the farm supplies purchased in America are handled by consumer cooperatives Seven hundred thousand farm homes get their light and power from consumer cooperative rural electric associations Thirty-one hundred co-op stores from Maine to California and from Florida to Washington supply merchandise to half a million families A thousand food stores from coast to coast specialize in uniform "Co-op" label groceries, bringing better living to consumers through more dependable quality or lower price. Fifteen hundred co-op service stations furnish co-op gas and oil to another half million co-op members. Half a million families have insured their lives, their cars or their homes in consumer-owned insurance companies Another six million have insured their farm property in small insur-

ance mutuals. More than 3½ million people are members of Credit Union Cooperatives for the purposes of borrowing and saving.

The methods of cooperation have proved successful in nearly every kind of enterprise—housing, telephone service, cafeterias, bakeries, credit unions and banking, book stores, health cooperatives, burial co-ops, eating clubs and cleaning and pressing establishments, recreation associations and camps.

Impressive as they are, however, statistics do not carry the whole story. They can never tell the human side, and it is a virtue of the cooperative movement that it does have a human side. It has been characterized as a business with a heart, and any one who has seen it at close range knows what it has meant in bringing self confidence and new hope to those who have despaired of a better economic future. It has helped people in every corner where it has grown, and its future as a rebuilder of depressed and blighted areas is only beginning. Throughout the entire southeast, once characterized as America's greatest economic problem, the cooperative movement is slowly building and is becoming widely accepted as a pattern for the future.

In spite of wartime handicaps, cooperatives are continuing to grow at a rapid rate, and, with the entry into manufacturing on a broad scale, they are becoming an increasingly important factor in the national economy. Whether they can take over fast enough to avoid the necessity of the Government's continuing to control the economy after the war to prevent a collapse in our economic system is doubtful.

TRENDS OF THE MOVEMENT

Development of cooperatives in this country so far has been chiefly in rural areas. Only in the east has there been any extensive growth in urban centers. This has led some people to the conclusion that it is likely to remain a farm movement. That this is an unsound view is evidenced by the fact that cooperatives in Great Britain have had their greatest growth among the working people of the cities. It is fair to draw the conclusion from this that the movement will grow just as well in city streets as in country lanes and that shortly we may well see a rapid spread of the cooperative idea in our city centers.

In fact, had it not been for fortuitous circumstances that resulted in the widespread failure of cooperatives among laboring groups back in the early part of the century, it might just as well have been that the

greatest growth today would be among labor people rather than among farmers.

In examining reasons for the slowness in the development of cooperatives here, one needs to look into the national psychology. By and large the farmer, the worker, and the professional people have always thought of themselves as producers. The national tempo and emphasis have always been on production and only lately have we begun to think of ourselves as consumers. This is partly due to the fact that geographically we are reaching the end of production possibilities, and partly due to the fact that we are reaching national adulthood and beginning to realize that the primary end of living is not to make things to sell but to consume and enjoy the things that we produce.

The richer cultural background of the people abroad and the fact that their producer world was staked out to the limits many years ago all plays into their having become consumer conscious much earlier. There were not so many opportunities to increase one's income through higher wages or by working harder. An increase in income was more likely to come through saving on expenses. This made the cooperative, whose aim it is to reduce costs to the consumer, a natural means of expression. As the opportunities in this country to increase income by simply taking off one's coat and working harder become less and less, we may expect an increasing consumer consciousness and, consequently, a more rapid turn to the cooperative movement

Though the world movement is nearing its first century mark, the movement in this country, excepting sporadic growth, is less than twenty-five years of age. It is only now finding its strength and making ready to take its place on the national scene.

—AND INTO THE FUTURE

America with the rest of the world finds itself at a dead-end road. It must choose another way ahead. Culture and tradition point to a cooperative pattern. This development can be rapid because the soil is fertile, and the climate is at last favorable It has been said that there is nothing

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more inevitable than an idea whose time has come. Today there is a growing body of people who believe that the cooperative movement is one of these ideas whose time has arrived—or at most is but a few years away.

THE CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVE AS A COMMUNITY EDUCATIONAL FORCE

EMORY S. BOGARDUS

In Maynard, Massachusetts, a town of 1,500 families, about 1,200 of these families belong to the United Cooperative Society.[1] In northern Wisconsin and in Minnesota the writer has visited towns in which as large a proportion as in this New England town are members of their respective cooperative associations. In rural districts of Ohio and Indiana and in Kansas and Nebraska the proportion of farmers in a given rural community who belong to cooperatives is also high.

The consumers' cooperative is universally made up of people who live in specific communities. Practically all consumers' cooperative associations are limited in their membership to the physical boundaries of a community. The cooperative in its geographic connection is distinctly a community institution.

Another tangible community tie-up of the consumers' cooperative is found in one of its universal principles; namely, the principle of returning a portion of its net earnings to its patron-members, who are also community members. The "profits" of a consumers' cooperative are returned to the community through patronage refunds. For example, on the first of April in every year the town of Maynard, Massachusetts, "is visibly enriched by some $20,000 that are paid back in cash patronage refunds by the United Cooperative Society to both members and non-members." In a community of the size of Maynard, this is a large sum which is a great boon to the people and which they would not receive were it not for their consumers' cooperative. Thus, both geographically and economically a consumers' cooperative is distinctly a local community institution.

[1] For an interesting account of the relations of a consumers' cooperative society to its community see *Maynard Weavers*, the Story of the United Cooperative Society of Maynard, by Frank C. Altonen (Maynard, Massachusetts, 1941)

In the forementioned capacity the consumers' cooperative plays an indirect but significant educational role in the community where its members live It sets an example of a thoroughly democratic way of doing business. It puts the American political principle of one vote per member into operation in the economic field in every locality where it functions.

The consumers' cooperative puts the American principle of free enterprise, individual initiative, individual ownership of property, and individual responsibility in economic life actually to work in the community through its own example. It teaches people in the community to rely on their own abilities It utilizes the concept of fair and free industry. It spreads ownership. It makes employees owners of property and adds to the security of all its members, and hence to the welfare of the community.

COOPERATIVE BUSINESS IS UNIQUE EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

When workers become owners of a cooperative business they undergo unique educational experiences. In a New Jersey community composed chiefly of shipyard workers, where a cooperative was formed recently, the workers found themselves in the role of employers. For many it was a new experience to be both employee and employer at the same time. As owners of a cooperative they faced the problem of determining wages from an angle entirely new to them. The questions arose as to what is a fair wage and what should be paid to the employees of their cooperative store. They took the discussion club approach Should they pay their store manager as high wages as they were receiving? What kind of business is this that they are conducting? What is being paid in this field? How much business volume will there be? What can the business afford to pay? All these questions indicate the kind of education in business methods that these cooperative employers were undergoing while at the same time they were still labor-union members.

In a given California community the cooperative association is composed about equally of townspeople and ranchers (the latter include farmers from the Middle West) Many of these urban and rural people are learning to work together for the first time. Moreover, the membership includes professional people, a lawyer or two, doctors, and teachers There are employers and employees. Altogether these people are enjoying some startling experiences in working as mutual owners of a business enterprise operated on cooperative principles

Thus, the consumers' cooperative is one of "the few community institutions that draws its membership from a vertical cross section of the community and translates it into a harmonious horizontal plane of action."[3] Many cooperative associations from North Carolina to the State of Washington are composed of both vertical and horizontal cross sections of a community, but a psychological process is at work in all of them that tends to produce "a harmonious horizontal plane of action." The resultant changes in attitudes are expressed by a professional man: "I have met and spoken to these residents in my community, but have not thought too highly of the ability of some of them. In our cooperative society meetings I have forgotten the differences in our occupational levels. Several times I have been surprised in our board meetings at finding all distinctions completely removed and that we are mutually respecting human beings seeking the solutions to common problems. It must be the cooperative principles that effect the transformation."

ENDS AND MEANS COINCIDE IN CO-OPS

A noteworthy result of the cross sectional community nature of numerous consumers' cooperative societies is that consumers and producers are brought together in mutual action. Not all but a considerable portion of the membership in some of these societies are producers of goods and services who are having their initial experiences in catching the consumers' viewpoints. Having always put the producers' interests foremost and having more or less ignored consumers as the universal members of society, they now look at themselves and their work from the other end of the economic telescope. They see themselves as servants of consumers. In making comparisons of the producers' and the consumers' attitudes they perceive the importance of working out adjustments from a point of view objective to both.

The producer members of a consumers' cooperative society give the consumer a fresh viewpoint of the attitude of producers, while they themselves are being educated concerning the consumers' viewpoints. Since a consumers' cooperative is regularly engaged in buying from producers, if not actually engaged in production, and distributing goods to consumers, membership therein affords an opportunity to see economic ends and means functioning as a unity. At least a small proportion of the

[3] As succinctly stated by Robert L. Smith, Education Director of the Eastern Cooperative League.

membership recognize that the cooperative movement is unique and compelling in that it represents in itself a high "coincidence of means and ends." As a result they acquire new visions of cooperative economics and of their possible role in it. In the consumer economy human needs are represented by consumers and the meeting of these needs by production Thus consuming and producing are the complementary parts of a single and naturally cooperative process.

The consumers' cooperative increases the cooperative spirit in its community It sets cooperation over competition. It brings all its community members including its employees into one cooperative effort on a democratic plane of community living. Its principles and procedures disseminate the idea throughout the community of getting ahead together. It consistently opposes the ridiculous practice of every one trying to get ahead by bowling over others or of getting ahead of others instead of getting ahead with all others. It is an institution that teaches good will by example more than by precept.

DO COOPERATIVE VALUES CARRY INTO COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS?

A vital question of educational import may be raised at this point The answer is not yet forthcoming, for lack of adequate research. The question is: "How far is there a carry-over of the cooperative spirit which the members develop in their association's activities into the other social contacts that the members have in community?" Some cooperatives are criticized because their members are able to meet a variety of needs within a well-organized and multi-activity association, and as a result tend to neglect their larger community obligations.

On the other hand the best developed consumers' cooperatives are showing a marked trend in the opposite direction. The alert cooperative takes an increasingly active part in the welfare of its community. It is represented at important community functions. It encourages its members to play active roles in as many specific activities as possible. They are expected to wear the twin pine emblem of consumers' cooperation either actually or figuratively in all their community contacts.

The growing community activities of cooperative members is well illustrated in the case of a Pennsylvania community in which certain cooperators have taken the lead in the community in the task of preparing to feed possible evacuees from the crowded cities in case of East Coast enemy bombings. Cooperators naturally have taken the lead in food con-

servation work and in storing up surplus food in a food bank for providing hearty meals on the spot at short notice for possible evacuees.

The educational influence of the open meetings and of the discussion groups calls for emphasis

The discussion groups which are held in homes in various parts of a community are leaven. Members of a cooperative bring nonmember citizens of the community. Whether called discussion circles, advisory councils, neighborhood councils, study-action groups, the educational effects are noteworthy.

The study-action groups, to use the name that was given the official sanction of the National Cooperative Publicity and Education Committee in 1942, discuss all kinds of topics, but do not end in talk. They decide on what needs to be done, and proceed to do it. In eastern Nova Scotia, to cite only one worthy example, the people began several years ago to come together and to discuss their housing problems. After thoughtful discussion over a period of many months some of the members in given communities decided that they could get better housing for themselves by working together. High rents for poor living accommodations have been overcome in at least eight instances in as many different communities where houses have been built cooperatively. Through cooperation these people now live in their own homes which they are paying for through their cooperative housing corporations. The examples set by these activities in different communities are educational object lessons.

Community after community became aware of its problems, developed ideas on how to solve them partly by the thinking and joint activities of their own members, and also acquired a sense of the relationship of their respective communities to the nation as a whole

ADULT EDUCATION BECOMES DYNAMIC

A sharp distinction exists between adult education as it commonly functions and the adult education of the cooperative movement. In the first case adults come together to acquire knowledge that will be of help to them in getting ahead of their fellows. They seek classes for their own "edification" and enjoyment. In the second case adults come together to discuss how by joining their efforts they can all get ahead together. Cooperative adult education has the dynamic of mutual action constantly stimulating its members. Not only is the channel "always open for converting discussion into action," but every study group meeting is based

on the assumption that new forms of mutual action will result. The discussion takes place with the question ever before it, what shall we do *together next?*

An increasing number of cooperatives have a thriving recreational program, which in itself is a lively educational factor in the community. Cooperative recreation gives every one social status. It develops no wall flowers. It draws every one into one or more of its singing games, its folk dances, and its handcraft activities. The educational force of cooperative recreation in a community springs from its catching democratic nature, its social wholesomeness, and the fact that it is provided by the participants acting together at minimum expense.

In many countries today, there is a network of consumers' cooperatives in contiguous communities. These cooperatives themselves own regional cooperatives which in turn own and operate a national cooperative. Thus the members of retail cooperatives are able to experience a real sense of relationship between their local communities and the larger region in which they live, and through their relation to the regional cooperative they develop a new feeling of belonging to the larger social whole.

Since national cooperative associations are members of the International Cooperative Alliance, the members of a cooperative in a local community can sense the dynamic relationship between local communities and the world, and a world order in which cooperation will set the limits to competition and in which peacemaking will supplant war making. The retail consumers' cooperative is an agency in the practical education of members of local communities in developing a helpful, wholesome world spirit and organization.

COOPERATIVES LAY FOUNDATIONS FOR A BETTER WORLD

Consumers' cooperatives are demonstration units of the religious principle of the brotherhood of man. As such they are complementary to the work of the churches in their spiritual administrations. They are supplementary too, for they aid in putting the social teachings of religion into operation in community life. They make practical the idealism professed by many church members.

Many cooperative societies through their research committees make systematic surveys of their communities The latter are studied with an eye to discovering what are the most urgent current problems of the community These problems are reviewed in the light of considering

which ones can be solved by mutual action of the community's members. In this way people become community conscious.

As people work together cooperatively to solve the problems of a community they develop a better acquaintance with and appreciation of each other. In their mutual struggle to develop a better community they acquire a new community loyalty.

A consumers' cooperative brings the members of a community together under wholesome circumstances. A cooperative functions on the basis of racial and religious and political neutrality. Thus the individuals of a community are relieved of the shortsightedness due to the prejudices that so often blind people to each others' good points. They meet not on the divisive grounds of differences but in the lively and pleasing atmosphere of good will and mutual helpfulness. They are creating peacemaking attitudes in local communities far and near.

If there is to be a better world, the beginning must come in the local communities where persons learn to work together, even in business, in behalf of the common welfare of man The consumers' cooperative is the technique that affords its members exactly this opportunity. It is actually engaged in training the members of communities around the world in working together for each other's welfare even while engaged in distributing and producing economic goods. Thus it is laying the foundations in local communities for a better economic order and at the same time for more just social relationships among mankind.

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RECREATION IN COOPERATIVES

RUTH CHORPENNING NORRIS

"Hey, lookit!" called the smaller of the two little girls. Both of them were leaning against the chain stretched across the entrance to a New York areaway. "Listen," she called again, louder to a group of five or six playing happily three houses down. "If Gracy 'n me's supposed to be in a institution, you got to come to see us " The children's game tells us

considerable about their neighborhood—people get put in institutions which they are not allowed to leave and the rest of us go to see them

But children's games are not the only ones that betray social patterns A few years ago a game called Monopoly was very popular with adults Its name speaks for it, but there are countless others built on the same general design—the exercise of skill and intelligence mixed with a dash of luck to get all of something away from everybody else.

If we take a look at the culture thrown to the surface of our civilization by the disillusionment following the last war, symptoms are immediately apparent. The haunting nostalgia of songs like "Star Dust," "Night and Day," "Smoke Gets in Your Eyes" echoes the "What's the use?" attitude of those frustrated years.

Play and art reflect the values of the civilizations that gave them birth, and the art is great art in proportion to the human rightness of these values. But if the only relation of play and art was to their context, they would be of greater interest to the historian than to the sociologist. Play and art values not only reflect; they help to form social patterns.

We all know about "the Playing Fields of Eton." The little girl who wins a prize with her "recitation" at the age of nine is more likely to grow up a "show-off" than a lover of poetry. The teamwork possible in basketball develops an awareness of what the other fellow is going to do and an alertness to respond for the best interests of both. The cutthroat competition sometimes fostered in basketball develops the "It's O K so long as you can get away with it" kind of behavior, later—and often—encountered elsewhere

A hasty glance at the values on which our present culture is built reveals that we are not, as we like to picture ourselves, entirely a nation of robust, energetic go-getters, overflowing with the milk of human kindness on the one hand and "native shrewdness" on the other.

In the first place, we are predominantly spectators. Figures on the number of people who play baseball and the number of people who watch it would be illuminating. The development of the little theaters has done much to take the drama into the class where people do things themselves, but motion pictures and radio are entirely vicarious and the juke box has replaced the family quartet

In the second place, we are more often than not viciously competitive When it is a disgrace to lose and more important to win than to play a good game, hostility and unscrupulousness turn the fun into a grim

struggle. This grim struggle is to be found elsewhere than in misused sports. We have with us the millionaire who would like to have the lining of his stomach back. We have with us the grim struggle resulting in the rubber cartel All too often we cannot even put on an amateur play without the stimulus of a contest or a tournament. Competition is ingrained in the structure of many games and (unless it is overemphasized) provides a healthy excitement. But competition has nothing to do with the structure or purpose of music, drama, and art. How often we do these things not for the satisfaction of the thing itself, but just to be better than some one else

In the third place, we are suckers for any kind of a gyp that holds out the hope of something for nothing The land abounds with pinball machines, slot machines, bank nights, Bingo's, and a chance on this and that, raffles, numbers rackets, to say nothing of what you can get *free* with a box top. This is not the kind of shrewdness that characterized our austere forbears (now doubtless busily turning over and over in their graves).

We let some one else play tennis for us; sing for us, dance for us. We struggle to "beat," fair or foul. We do not disdain "something for nothing." It is obvious where these arrows point and it is not toward democracy.

CHANGED VALUES PRODUCE CHANGED PEOPLE

The cooperative movement does not follow these arrows It holds that a democracy must have a democratic economy. The establishment of this democratic economy is hampered in proportion as people live "secondhand"; as they do not care what happens to the other team; as they covet the jackpot. In cooperatives people have to run their own businesses They must use their own intelligence, money, and effort. Personal victories cannot be as important to them as the achievement of common aims. And they must know that this is not to be achieved "for nothing"

The distortion of human nature which the symptoms of our present civilization indicate is a serious hazard The word "distortion" is used advisedly. This kind of living may be "easy," but it does not fit the human animal. He is not made happy by it. Outside of certain limits it may be true that "you can't change human nature," but inside those limits it is frighteningly malleable. It can be molded into shapes bizarre, sinister, or

beautiful, by relationships, by sanctions and taboos, by our education and the other fellow's propaganda, by countless other pressures

It is doubtful whether being talked at is one of them. If we wish to diminish this distortion and help establish cooperative values, we must set up situations that will cool the aching ego and give energy and initiative a good workout. And we must set up such situations in every field of activity. Of these, one is recreation.

The first thing we must do is to examine what kinds of recreation are conducive to these ends. The next thing is to consider what sort of leadership is necessary. The third is to develop it.

Folk materials are, of course, the first reservoir to be tapped. Dances that are a spontaneous expression of the gaiety and grace of neighbors who actually liked each other are a heritage from people who knew how to live better than we do. These dances provide a release from tense muscles, tight nerves, and social fears; and they provide it within a rhythmic social pattern. It is recognized that this release is valuable and that the way out of the attendant "whoop and holler" behavior is not through discipline and ill temper but through emphasis on rhythm and pattern.

Folk songs well up from people who love the earth they work. They were sung because people could not help but sing them, not because some one in Tin Pan Alley guessed right on the juke-box market The best of our popular songs are lovely, but their beauty does not come from the attunement found, for instance, in this Czech song[1]:

"Over the meadows green and wide,
Blooming in the sunlight,
Blooming in the sunlight,
Over the meadows green and wide,
Oft we go a-roaming, side by side.

Hey!

Streamlets down mountains go,
Pure from the winter snow,
Joining they swiftly go
Singing of life so free

[1] This song is taken from the volume *Singing America* which is obtainable for 25 cents from the National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City

Streamlets down mountains go,
Pure from the winter snow,
Joining they swiftly go
Calling to me

Sweet is the air with new mown hay,
Cooling in the twilight,
Cooling in the twilight,
Sweet is the air with new mown hay
As we homeward go at close of day.

Hey!

Nor do they produce that attunement.

There is a feeling abroad in the land that any game that makes people laugh is a good game. A less superficial inquirer would do well to examine the source of the laughter Upright and kindly groups who would shudder at the thought of starting an evening's fun with that story about the traveling salesman and the farmer's daughter do not hesitate to do worse things to their members than give them a bit of vicarious Rabelais They do not hesitate to use "icebreakers" that make one person, or a small group, the butt of ridicule; that intensify the unbearable isolation shy people experience when the spotlight is turned on them; that provide opportunities for the show-off who is almost inevitably in our midst to set himself even further apart from the group—games that are thoroughly divisive in spite of the fact that they do make people laugh Since cooperatives are interested in breaking down barriers between people, whether these barriers are individual maladjustments like shyness and exhibitionism, or economic, racial, or religious, we choose games which unify a group—such games, for instance, as Name Six.

In this game the players sit in a circle while a ball or any other object is passed from hand to hand. One person either plays the piano or sings, and stops suddenly. Whoever has the ball at this moment is "it." Either the musician or another player previously selected says "Name six objects (they must be objects) beginning with D (or any other letter of the alphabet)." "It" then starts the ball around the circle which passes it as quickly as possible. Before the ball returns to him, "it" has to name six

objects beginning with D. If you have played this game, or if you will try it, you will find that the fun comes from these factors: (1) the absurd words that pop into people's minds, (2) the realization, often verbal, that you can think of words when you're not "it" but you cannot when you are, and are hypnotized by the movement of the ball from hand to hand, (3) the delight on the part of the whole group whenever "it" gets his words out in time, often expressed in applause. The key to this is, of course, that the players are beating a situation and not each other.

An Olympian attitude toward competitive games, however, would be a great mistake. When they have unfortunate effects on attitudes and behavior, the fault lies in why they are played and in how they are played and not in the game itself. They can develop the ability to play with everything you've got and accept defeat without rancor and victory without arrogance.

HANDCRAFTS CAN START THE BALL ROLLING

Did you make it yourself? The satisfaction that comes from making something yourself and the pride of good workmanship is largely denied to people living in a machine age. Nor is it possible or desirable to turn back the clock to the days of hand-pegged houses and hand-woven clothes as a way of producing things. But people still need and enjoy the sense of achievement that comes from hammering a piece of copper into a shape pleasing to them or tooling a design in leather. In the process people develop the freedom that comes from confidence. They also develop the taste for simplicity of line and color; the appreciation of beauty in familiar objects that artists call good taste. It is true that this good taste is not always apparent with the first ring of mallet on pewter, and often more sophisticated tastes shudder at the initial crude and ugly results. But an examination of peasant crafts should teach us that people who have not been spoiled by Hollywood and Grand Rapids develop a style and art of their own that could never have come into being if they had been set to copy other peoples' designs. Many a person has had a tentative interest in crafts killed by some impatient and scornful leader. The social values of crafts are not as apparent as are those of folk dancing and singing and indeed they are probably not as great. They require less social integration, and they do not automatically unify to the same extent. However, they reach people who could not otherwise be interested. Our competitive civilization has conditioned many people to feel that when

they are in a group they must excel or be failures. This desperate push to excel is probably one of the most exhausting emotional states in the experience of mankind, and it is not surprising that we hear people say: "When I want to have a good time, I like to get off by myself I can't relax around other people." Every one needs and wants time for solitude, of course, but there are people who are incapable of extending the feeling of "this is me" to "this is us." To ask such people to a dance or a rehearse in a play will only squeeze their loneliness more tightly around them. But they can still say "this is me" and weave a belt, and accomplishment and appreciation from others are the first things to relax the tension.

A young man of about twenty who had just lost his job on account of his bossiness and stubbornness came to a cooperative recreation week end. He entered into nothing. He criticized the informality with which things were being run. He succeeded in getting several people to lose their tempers. Finally he picked up a piece of metal and started to make a candle stick. It had good simple lines, was carefully made, and was a really good job. The leader could honestly call attention to it and compliments poured in. A few hours later he was asked by the leader to help some one else solder. That evening he got into games and dancing. Two years later, the leader was pleased to hear him recommended for a ticklish job because "he's so good at working with people."

There is always the danger when telling of a striking instance that *it will be thought typical. This was, of course, an extreme case but it is* an example of what can happen to all of us on a much smaller scale.

DRAMA REQUIRES HIGHEST GROUP INTEGRATION

If arts and crafts are the most individualized and require and give the least social integration, dramatics demands and returns the most. The absence of one person from a rehearsal can throw the whole cast. So much is obvious. But the interdependence of people who are putting on a play is much more fundamental than that. A play is not the sum of individual performances. It is an organic whole that has grown by the impact of people on each other. That is, it can be. All too often it is not. All too often we start out by having tryouts, thus carefully selecting our show-offs and extroverts and equally carefully eliminating the diffident, the slow, the sensitive. We take the people who do not need it and leave out the ones who do. We then proceed to cast to type. The most popular girl is the

ingenue; the plainest one, the old maid aunt; the shy boy is the shy boy. The results of this can be tragic. A group of young people were putting on a play and they cast one boy as the shy young kid because "it was him to a 't.'" It was a small part and he was at length persuaded to take it on. If the reader will remember or imagine what happens to a shy person, he can understand the torture the boy went through. The muscles of your legs tense. It takes a lot of energy to move those tense sticks around. There is a knot in the back of your neck. You cannot take a deep breath. There is too much blood going up into your ears. They ring. All these unpleasant things happened to this boy in the ordinary course of life. But in the play every one of them was multiplied. Of course, he could not remember his lines His friends who had thought all this would bring him out decided he was stupid. He developed a stutter. This again is an extreme case, but the same thing in miniature is true in all type casting. It does not provide the opportunity to relax existing tensions. And every one has them.

Our next common blunder is to get a director who may or may not know the theater, but who knows nothing about people or what is happening to them during rehearsals. This director then *directs*. He tells people where to go, how to read lines, etc., thereby eliminating any chance for creative interaction on the part of the cast. A play conducted in this manner only drives deeper existing attitudes and behaviors. But a play that is picked to suit the people who want to be in it, is cast enough against type so that every one gets a chance to be some one other than himself, and is then worked out as a group, with some one sitting as audience representative so that it shall be effective to that larger group when it is given—a play treated in this way can be a powerful tool to dissolve social patterns and orient reconfigurations. It is this method of treating the situation that cooperatives are interested in

To put on a play, therefore, or to do metalwork is no guarantee that we shall achieve what we are working for Much depends on the kind and understanding of the leadership. Some necessary characteristics have become apparent in the foregoing but there are others.

1. We do not want a leader and a group. Therefore, each group will want to develop its own leadership, not rely on "professionals."

2. This leadership must not be concentrated in the hands of one person or even a few It must constantly reach out for others.

3. Leaders must like people. They must care more about what is happening to the group than about how successful they are as leaders.

COOPERATIVE STORE PERSONNEL AS EDUCATORS

RUDOLPH L. TREUENFELS

People interested in the social and economic implications of the consumer cooperative movement often ask: "What is the background of your employees? Do you prefer to entrust your co op food stores to experienced men whom you try to get from retail outlets in private business, or do you find it possible to use persons interested in cooperative work from other walks of life?"

The answer to this question will vary in different parts of the country and in different local societies and their regional districts. Co-op food stores offer a good example of an enterprise that clearly manifests the basic goals of the movement. We might refer to them in an attempt to examine the qualities that are expected from co-op workers and for an analysis of the educational features that distinguish cooperative outlets from the ordinary run of privately owned business units What they represent is only one branch—and by no means the most conspicuous one—among the many lines of cooperative business which have been showing a rapid growth over the past few years. Yet even in this one field, practice in selecting and using desirable talent is by no means uniform.

A WIDE-AWAKE GROUP OF MEN AND WOMEN

Let us look at some of the employees who characterize the hired help the movement is coming to rely upon. We will choose a few teams as we actually find them now working in different places in States along the eastern seaboard.

First, the co-op store in a city in Maryland which is now doing a business of not quite $1,000 weekly. You would be surprised to learn that the clerk in this small but fast-growing store is a man well known for his prominence as an administrator and statistician in mission work all over the world. He has a renowned book and other publications to his credit. He is a member of the Joint Executive Committee on the World Council of Churches. Yet he decided to embrace a career in American cooperatives, and he did not feel that the functions of an employee in a modest store were too lowly a job in which to start. He affirms that he does not

regret his choice because he is looking forward to an ever increasing usefulness in the movement to which he is now devoting himself.

His manager comes from a very different background. He came to this country only a few years ago after having spent some time in the Netherlands, to which he turned after having been compelled to leave abruptly his journalistic and social work in Germany immediately after Hitler's ascendance to power, because of his views on democracy. He was familiar and closely connected with consumer cooperatives in Europe, and his talents and his attitude have gained him much credit within the group with which he is now connected.

Another team of two which might attract our attention is found in a small industrial city in Massachusetts. There our co-op store is only fifteen months old, yet already is doing a better business than numerous societies of greater age. The manager, who is now about 28 years old, came to the movement because of his search for some realm of work "that would make it more possible to reconcile ethics with everyday activity" in a line of business "that would preserve individual liberty from state control and yet overcome certain evils of capitalist economy." Before going into foodstore work he was managing a music shop owned by his family in the same State, where he attended to everything that came up. He claims to be much happier than he was before. His assistant is a young girl who became interested in cooperatives during her college days in the midwest, when a few faculty members started a buying club in the basement of one of their houses She later became more closely associated with the movement when she attended an institute at a Quaker school and got started on a study of consumer cooperatives in the neighborhood of a well-known preparatory school at which she was teaching. Her academic background does not handicap her when cleaning the store or attending to customers or helping with any of the other chores which store work involves

CONGENIALITY—NOT WITHOUT GOOD REASON

These manager-clerk pairs are rather typical of the attractive variety of people we have recently found assembled in cooperative employment. They are tying well together, and for that there is a special reason They

all completed the same kind of specialized training which has recently been available for candidates aiming at a co-op food-store career, and a certain congeniality results from this uniform preparation for their new venture. Before we go into that in further detail, let us mention one more employee group in one of the eastern societies which also hails from the same schooling effort.

We find it in a very small place in southern New Jersey where, in a community of less than 2,500 inhabitants, the co-op store is now doing a weekly volume of about $2,400 It did not do more than $400 before the new manager took over about seven months ago. This man came from one of our big mail-order houses, with which he had been connected for nearly ten years, advancing steadily until he became assistant to the national sales manager in one of their major departments. He was pondering over the idea of having a nonprofit organization incorporated for serving consumers better, when one of his friends suggested that he should check his thoughts with the institutions already established according to cooperative principles. He lived in Wisconsin, but was ready to give up the attractive and promising position he held in order to come East and try himself as manager of an actual "nonprofit" store. The change from the familiar household-appliance field to foods did not diminish his usefulness. It is not easy to double a store's volume in these days of supply shortages; it is spectacular if somebody succeeds in increasing it sixfold in less than a year.

Among his clerks we find a woman who took charge of his produce department when they moved from smaller premises to Main Street, adding new food lines to the groceries they were carrying before. She became enthusiastic about consumer cooperation when the movement first came to her attention through supervisors of an adult-education program which she was directing in her hometown. She has spent most of her life as a teacher and librarian, except for the time when she concentrated on raising a family. Customers commented that she takes care of every head of lettuce or cauliflower as if she were handling her own baby. The care and thought which many of our co-op store clerks put into their work is one of the evidences of their devotion

It is not without significance that this "girl" manager of a produce de-

partment has a son who preceded her in a co-op career, and who, after having worked in other places, is now an employee of this same food market. Mother and son are working under the management of a friend, and this close relationship, which would be unusual and might even be considered unwholesome in an ordinary chain-store organization, seems to be working out to everybody's satisfaction in the atmosphere of this cooperative endeavor.

SINGULAR ASPECTS OF A DIGNIFIED CALLING

Doing justice to all ramifications of an economic method which is based on consumer ownership and consumer control requires not only a thorough knowledge of many different angles of administrative functions and of business practices, of financial considerations and of promotional aspects, but also a sound grounding in cooperative principles and methods.

Work in genuine cooperatives serves one master only: The Consumer. He is identical with the owner of the business. Private industries, private stores, stock companies in the insurance or banking field, filling stations, or farm-supply houses might all want to put emphasis on their customers' interest. With their employees, however, remains the temptation to rate the needs of their employer first, the interest of the consumer second. In cooperatives the consumer-owner, the patron member himself, is the employer of all the help he hires. In cooperative enterprise an employee's success and advancement depend on his serving the customer with an "undivided loyalty" for which there is every incentive.

Those who are conscious of the strength they can derive from this singular aspect find in it an additional source for satisfaction in their jobs. They understand that the growth of their cooperative units is a desirable goal only because it enables their societies to bring better satisfaction to an increasing number of friendly people. This fact gives their function a dignity which work in ordinary business does not provide It tends to result in an attitude that looks beyond fair wages and pleasant working conditions We find an increasing number of men and women to whom nothing appeals more than the ultimate honesty which they are not only permitted but requested to observe in all their dealings with consumers

DEMOCRACY NEEDS CAPABLE SERVANTS

One responsibility of our personnel training is to help all employees realize that their work serves not only their immediate customers and patron members but at the same time the progress of the cooperative movement and through it the public welfare at large These views condition the kind of educational process that accompanies all cooperative business practice. The demands made on cooperative employees are often more rigid than they might be elsewhere. They carry, however, a reward in themselves.

John Stuart Mill once wrote: "The ideal of democracy is that the people shall be masters, but employ servants more capable than themselves." Charles Gide, the great French scholar and cooperative leader, quotes this sentence, adding to it the remark: "This is precisely the ideal of a cooperative consumers' society; but unfortunately it is not easy to realize."

Since the very initiation of the Cooperative League of the U S.A. in 1916, efforts have been made to give promising prospects the right understanding and practical training. Leading in these endeavors has been the Central Cooperative Wholesale in Superior, Wisconsin, which has received increasing support from all its affiliates in carrying on regular employee training schools for two decades. Other such schools are now conducted by the regional cooperatives in Kansas City, Missouri, Minneapolis, Minnesota, Chicago, Illinois, and Columbus, Ohio.

Dr. James Peter Warbasse, whose initiative and vision conducted the affairs of The Cooperative League he himself founded, through the twenty-five years of his presidency, is now concentrating on Rochdale Institute, which was established about six years ago in New York City in answer to the need strongly felt by him and other leaders in cooperative thought for a national training school. This institution is slated to become the unified strong cooperative college that will serve to instill true cooperative conceptions in the minds of the movement's future workers. It is recognized that it still has a certain way to go before its prestige will carry all the weight that will make attendance at the school a desirable part of the career of every future executive in the movement

Rochdale Institute operates under a charter granted by the University of the State of New York. Its faculty consists of educators and executives

engaged in cooperative work, teachers from New York colleges, and specialists from various fields.

STRIVING FOR CRAFTSMANSHIP THROUGH THOROUGH STUDY

It is under the auspices of Rochdale Institute that the Council for Cooperative Business Training assembled and prepared the groups of students from which a few members were here presented The Council, under a grant from the Edward A. Filene Good Will Fund of Boston, came into being in the fall of 1939, with two representatives each from Rochdale Institute, Eastern Cooperative Wholesale, and Consumer Distribution Corporation, and gives special consideration to the training needs of consumer cooperatives operating stores on the Atlantic seaboard. Its program is fitted into the structure of Rochdale Institute's general courses. It was obvious that those who are going to serve cooperative consumers in food retailing need a sound knowledge and understanding of cooperative principles and philosophy. Rochdale Institute's faculty was able to provide this instruction with real authority.

Meeting the men who give their stamp to American cooperative philosophy and practice in lectures and free discussions is an experience that will not be forgotten in the daily strain of an often tiring store routine. Understanding for the main aspects of cooperative publicity and education is considered important, as it is this unique phase of cooperative practice that gives our type of distributing outlets their decided advantage over any ordinary competition. These subjects are dealt with in morning sessions which unite the "food-store group" with the other students of Rochdale Institute. Together all derive benefit from the atmosphere that prevails in an institution of academic standing

The afternoon sessions are designed to furnish the information dealing specifically with topics of interest to future co-op store employees. This afternoon program calls for technical instructors, most of whom are on the staff of the Eastern Cooperative Wholesale—its manager and its educational director, its buyer and its dietician, and, above all, its field men. They give the extensive experience they have gained in the hard uphill struggle to improve the commercial efficiency and the cooperative strength of the societies and stores entrusted to their advice and counsel.

The problems of store management, of buying and selling, of operating costs and margins are covered in these gatherings, which are all held at the Wholesale's warehouse plant. There we find equipment and merchandise for actual demonstrations, together with the *genius loci* of a wide-awake and thriving organization bursting with energy.

COMPETENCE IN BOTH THEORY AND PRACTICE

The students are made to realize the essential synthesis between the line of cooperative thought presented to them in the mornings and the technical problems of their future work dealt with in the afternoons. The emphasis on all the background information and understanding a well-informed cooperator ought to have is equaled by the emphasis with which facts and figures pertaining to practical achievements are presented for consideration.

The classroom work in each course is divided by at least one period of two or three consecutive weeks of apprenticeship in a co op store. More than twenty different societies in eight different States have been working with the Council on this project, serving as training centers for one "interne" at a time. Most of the students were thus given their first opportunity to acquire some familiarity with the problems peculiar to consumer-controlled food stores. Those who have already worked at other places learn much from comparison and appraisal.

It is admitted that the short weeks available for any course does not permit all these different angles to be covered fully There is nothing, for instance, that can replace the ability which is produced by experience on the job, and there are many requirements of manual dexterity that cannot be taught in the classroom but can be acquired only in long periods of alert attentiveness in day-to-day work. All that can be hoped for at a school is to develop a specific sense of duty by making the student conscious of the broader implications of his obligations in a store. Warnings against mistakes and admonitions fall on more fertile ground when the entire course is based on the teaching that there exists a higher responsibility for a worker in cooperatives than for one in an enterprise concerned only with its own private success.

THERE IS ALWAYS NEED FOR MORE RECRUITS

The concerted effort which goes into this training project has borne fruits. Not every student by any means has been a perfect success on the job. The majority of those admitted to the courses, however, have satisfied all reasonable expectations.

The movement recognizes that it continually needs fresh blood It considers itself lucky if it can draw for it on those who have already familiarized themselves with its principles and goals, through their positions on boards or committees This is probably more true in connection with cooperative food stores than any other branch of cooperative business. Co-op food stores, particularly those in urban communities, generally recruit their officers among people who are not as closely tied to their professions as farmers usually are to their jobs. So we find workers and teachers, engineers and lawyers, ministers and accountants, as presidents, treasurers, or chairmen of educational, finance, or store committees, who may get so interested in their avocational association with a cooperative development that they feel induced to take it on as a vocation. The same has happened to nurses, secretarial workers, or housewives, particularly during the past year since the hiring of women even for managers' positions has become a common occurrence

THE STORE AS A TASK- AND SCHOOL-MASTER

It can be said that connection with a local cooperative society actually educates all who take an active part to become not only cooperative- but also business-minded.

On a finance committee, for instance, the members have to study financial requirements of their organizations and the best way to raise the necessary funds. They have to suggest plans for wise investment, supervise and interpret the organization's financial position, make recommendations to the board on the distribution of any net savings, or on how to deal with problems resulting from a net loss.

On the educational committee they have to attend to problems of public relations and to devise the best means of communication between their society and the community in general, as well as with churches, welfare organizations, social clubs, and consumer groups. In many cases they

have to attend to writing, editing, and distributing a local bulletin, circulating information on merchandising projects, and organizing social and educational activities.

Those on the store committee may take a hand in personnel policies pertaining to the selection of employees, to working conditions, union contracts, complaints of customers, and other personnel matters. They will make recommendations on the manager's suggestions for new equipment or for alterations in the store layout or possibly for enlargement and modernization of their store. They might also concern themselves with the supply situation, and with special requests that are submitted from the membership at large.

All these functions carry an educational value in themselves, and so we find that in a cooperative enterprise such as a food store "education over the counter" works both ways. Sufficiently informed and diligent boards and committees lighten the burden of their managers and clerks. Enlightened employees aid their society and all its members toward a better realization of all the values they can obtain through an inspired, fully integrated, comprehensive program.

CO-OP PERSONNEL RADIATES "PERSONALITY"

Well-designed posters, well-selected quotations from cooperative writings which ornament the walls of wide-awake co ops arouse the casual visitor's interest in the ideas prevailing "behind the merchandise." A rack with cooperative literature in such stores calls even more conspicuously for the public's considered attention. What really counts, however, is the personal touch, as it manifests itself in the enthusiasm which the best of our cooperative employees carry into their daily task, above and beyond all the other benefits affiliation with the cooperative might have to offer. It is sustained by the harmony which naturally evolves between a retailer and his customers when those who determine the policy of the enterprise and share the responsibility for its results are to be found both in front of the checking counter as patrons and behind it as owners of their business. The personality of those occupied in this cooperative way of doing business goes further than even the profoundest theoretical discussion in convincing the incredulous.

All that goes to prove that the set of simple rules which were first adopted by the pioneers in a small English town about one hundred years ago, and which we call Rochdale principles, influence not only human thought but also human behavior and attitude. It is the justness of their economic foundation that reflects on the righteousness with which they are carried through. They call for practical accomplishment even in a business way which will not be in conflict with ethical postulates

As Dr. Warbasse puts it in one passage of his *Cooperative Democracy* when speaking of the morality of cooperation: "Through cooperation, we discover that it is possible for the people to change from self-centered aims to aims that are as broad and high as humanity. It is slowly driving home, by demonstration, the idea of a new standard of success People have better relations to one another and the hardness of human contacts is ameliorated in terms of mutual aid" To establish this concept among cooperative employees is as much an objective of cooperative training courses as to increase their technical skill.

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THE PLACE OF CONSUMERS' COOPERATION IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

C MAURICE WIETING

Consumers' cooperation should have an important place in the school curriculum On this fact social scientists, political leaders, labor unions, farm organizations, and educators are completely agreed, for they know that the war emergency makes it more necessary than ever for the schools to train their students to be wise consumers.

The ignorance of the American public on consumer problems is demonstrated by the difficulties involved in the rationing of gasoline, coffee, sugar, and other essentials by the Office of Price Administration. Another sign of ignorance is the fact that so few American consumers, only about 2,500,000, are members of consumers' cooperatives For these shortcom-

ings the school curriculum must be blamed in part, for in the past the emphasis of American education has been on production, job getting, profits—not on the far more essential problems of nutrition, social security, adequate housing, and wise distribution of goods.

Some indication of the lack of information senior high school students have of consumers' cooperation was revealed in a series of tests recently given to 139 boys and girls in five widely separated communities.[1] It was the belief of 32.1 per cent that the Federal Government was opposed to consumers' cooperation because it was un-American. A surprising number, 62.2 per cent, thought that canned goods in the average grocery were so well labeled that the housewife had no difficulty in knowing what quality and quantity she had purchased. Almost the same number, 60.8 per cent, said that people generally get what they pay for when they buy. Though cooperatives are nonprofit, 59.7 per cent of those taking the test thought hope of making huge profits was the chief motive for joining a society.

Courses in consumer education that have been introduced in some schools within the past five years should help educate youths on consumer problems. More widespread is the practice of including units on consumer education in classes in home economics, social science, business methods, and science. Where this emphasis has been given to consumer education some units on consumers' cooperation often have been taught as well. Before the outbreak of the war some educators predicted that consumer education would soon be included in the majority of school curricula with another five-year period. However, because of the war many of the progressive curriculum experiments which were under way in many parts of the country have been halted. The emergency has been so great that many schools have been forced to bend all of their efforts toward the expansion of their vocational training facilities. The need for physicists, chemists, and mathematicians has caused schools to stress these subjects to the neglect of the social sciences, the language arts, and consumer education.

EDUCATION MUST TEACH ECONOMIC ALTERNATIVES

Many educators deplore this trend to eliminate the liberal arts from the curriculum. They point out that it is folly to suppose that econo-

[1] C. Maurice Wieting, Test on Consumers' Cooperation, Forms A and B, 1941, mimeographed.

mists, political scientists, sociologists, and educators will not be needed in the postwar world. One of the most pressing problems after the war will be to determine the type of economic structure needed to achieve the Four Freedoms, one of the most important of which is freedom from want. It is certain that we can never return to the private profit economy of the nineteenth century. Certainly consumers' cooperation is one of the possible ways of organizing business that should be thoroughly understood by every one. Many economists believe that it is possible that in the future there will be a balance between business done by the government, private corporations, and consumers' cooperatives. Students of high-school age should be thoroughly informed concerning this possibility.

Recently public-school teachers in 38 States were questioned on their willingness to include instruction on consumers' cooperation in the curriculum. Teachers in 252 different schools indicated that 83.5 per cent of them favored including instruction on cooperation. Further it was their opinion that 74.5 per cent of all teachers in the United States held this same opinion.[2]

One might well ask, in the light of these figures, why it is that so few schools are now giving any instruction on consumers' cooperation. There are several reasons that can be listed:

1. The cooperative movement has been so slow in developing in the United States that its members have not been able to exert influence on curriculum makers to include the topic in courses of study. There are a little more than 2,500,000 members of consumers' cooperators in the United States and less than two per cent of all retail business is carried on by cooperative societies. These facts account for the fact that more emphasis is not given to consumers' cooperation in the school curriculum. True, the cooperative movement abroad has long been one of the most important ways of doing business in the Scandinavian countries and in Great Britain but this fact has been recognized by only a few people in the United States. Members of cooperatives have not generally given much attention to the public-school curriculum and have been more interested in adult education.

2. Most teachers are untrained in the principles of consumers' cooperation and could not teach about that subject if asked to do so. The Rochdale principles are generally unknown to teachers, as any one can testify

[2] C. Maurice Wieting, *How to Teach Consumers' Cooperation* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942), p. 91.

who has worked with normal-school or teachers college students To a lesser degree the generalization could be made that teachers are ill-trained in the social sciences and have little comprehension of economic systems.

3. Courses of study do not include units on consumers' cooperation in most States and cities. In the United States the course of study prepared by a State, county, or city school system is the largest single determinant of the whole education of the child. These courses of study fall far short of the standards of scholarship one would expect. Only in a few exceptional courses is there any adequate discussion of consumer education and consumers' cooperatives.

4. Textbooks have neglected to give adequate attention to consumers' cooperation. Oftentimes well-known economics texts give less than a page to consumers' cooperation. There is some hope that this situation will become better as a few standard textbooks come to give a more comprehensive coverage of consumers' cooperation. Textbooks in subjects other than economics which could include a discussion of consumers' cooperation would be those in history, English, science, agriculture, home economics, and mathematics.

LACK OF TEACHING AIDS BEING CORRECTED

That some educators recognize the importance of teaching consumers' cooperation is shown by the fact that the National Education Association has an active Committee on Cooperatives that reports annually, constantly recommending better ways to instruct children on this important topic.[8]

State courses of study are effective means of introducing the teaching of consumers' cooperation. In Wisconsin a law was passed in 1935 which provided that cooperative marketing and consumers' cooperation should be taught in the high and vocational schools in the State. It also required that the governing boards of universities, State teachers' colleges, and county normal schools should provide adequate instruction on the principles of cooperation The University of Wisconsin has since published, through the Extension Service of the College of Agriculture, special pamphlets and bulletins for teachers. Since Wisconsin is the only State that makes the teaching of consumers' cooperation compulsory by State

[8] *Report of the Committee on Cooperatives* (Washington, D C · National Education Association, 1938; 1939–1940, 1941; and 1942)

law, it is interesting to observe the effectiveness of this procedure. Harold M. Groves, Professor of Economics at the University of Wisconsin, reports that since there are no penalties attached to the Wisconsin law, it is not observed in some schools. He blames this failure on a scarcity of materials, untrained teachers, and a lack of interest. On the positive side he reports that interest in the cooperative movement is growing very rapidly in Wisconsin and that he believes the movement will play a very important part in the future of the State. Of the 252 teachers from all parts of the United States who replied to the questionnaire mentioned previously, 65.1 per cent indicated overwhelmingly that they did not favor compulsory instruction in consumers' cooperation.

In Minnesota the Legislature appropriated $5,000 in 1937 to the Department of Education for the preparation of a course of study on cooperation. No legal requirements for the teaching of cooperation were set up, but the course of study on consumers' cooperation which was printed in 1938 was so excellent that many Minnesota schools are now teaching consumers' cooperation.[4]

Other mimeographed material has since been prepared for use in elementary schools. Quite often a cooperative has been organized in rural schools, purchasing pencils, paper, and other supplies that the children need. A recent survey conducted by the Minnesota Department of Education revealed that 754 units of consumers in marketing cooperation were being taught in 254 Minnesota public schools.

In North Dakota a law was passed in 1937 that requires any secondary school to have courses on cooperatives if twelve junior or senior students petition for it The Farmers' Union was especially active in securing the passage of this law A State-financed correspondence course in cooperatives has been prepared by the Farmers' Union.

There are units on consumers' cooperation in the State courses of study of a number of other States It would be correct to say that consumers' cooperation is most often included in the course of study in those States in which the cooperative movement is especially strong.

PRACTICAL COOPERATION ACTIVITY SUPPLEMENTS CURRICULUM

Scattered over the United States are individual schools that are successfully teaching consumers' cooperation. One of the best known of

[4] Minnesota State Department of Education, *Course of Study on Consumers' Cooperation* (St Paul, Minnesota, 1938)

these is the Skokie Junior High School of Winnetka, Illinois. The story of its program is told in another article in this issue.

School authorities in Winnetka are of the opinion that their students have learned a great deal through these economic activities. They believe that education is successful in the degree that it mirrors real-life situations.

Another outstanding example of a school cooperative is that of the Pine Mountain Settlement School. Students operate their own cooperative which sells foods, school supplies, and other items needed by the boys and girls. The store is run in conjunction with the co-op class which is attended by all the sophomores in the school. Shares are sold for 25 cents. During the 1940–1941 school year there were 115 shareholders. Supplies are purchased by students who accompany the school buyer to the nearest market in Harlan. Accurate records are kept of all business transactions and rebates are paid to members at the end of the school term.

The study of consumers' cooperation is an integral part of the school curriculum. The class meets 4 hours a week in 2 sections. The local store is the focal point of the instruction given; all students have a part in the operation of that enterprise. Adult cooperative undertakings are also studied, with special emphasis being given to progress in the United States. Because the school secures light and power from the Cumberland Valley Rural Electric Cooperative Corporation, a unit on that subject is taught. Consumer buying, also, is given much emphasis in the course Credit unions were studied for the first time in 1941.

Other classes in the school also teach cooperation. For example, the English class taught the students how to write letters asking for information. A one-act play was written and produced in the same class. The home-economics department assisted in the study of foods and clothing Printing the annual report of the cooperative was part of the regular shopwork. Monthly assembly programs before the entire school are devoted to cooperation.

These illustrations, schools which are teaching consumers' cooperation, indicate that the practice is widespread. Certainly the possibilities of establishing a school cooperative are almost endless.

The teacher who wishes to include instruction on consumers' cooperation is immediately faced with several problems. What are the most effective ways of teaching the topic? By establishing a separate class on consumers' cooperation, or by instruction on the movement in existing

classes? There is, of course, no one answer to this problem, but it may be helpful to consider some of the typical curriculum organizations found in American schools.

SUBJECT MATTER, CASE CURRICULUM, OR SEPARATE COURSE?

In a study made of over 83,000 separate elementary and high-school courses of study on file in the Curriculum Laboratory at Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1940, it was discovered that over 90 per cent of them utilized a separate subject-matter organization.[5]

It thus becomes evident that most teachers wishing to include instruction on consumers' cooperation can best do so by adding a unit on that topic to an existing school class. Out of 252 teachers asked to indicate the curriculum pattern they preferred, nearly 40 per cent chose a separate subject curriculum. Classes in which consumers' cooperation is now most frequently taught are economics, social studies, history, sociology, agriculture, and American problems.

Some schools have revised their curricula by correlating existing subjects. For example, history, sociology, and economics are taught in a single social-studies class. Oftentimes this correlation exists between different areas of knowledge. English classes are correlated with home economics, science with consumer education, and the like. A study of consumers' cooperation can well be carried on in a correlated curriculum The social-studies teacher might deal with the organization of cooperatives under the Rochdale principles; at the same time the science teacher might set up tests for the quality of goods sold in cooperative stores; while the home-economics teacher might introduce a comparative study of the nutritive value of different grades of canned goods

In other schools a "core" curriculum has been organized. The broad fields of social studies, the language arts, science, mathematics, homemaking, vocational and industrial arts are recognized as essential in well-rounded education From these broad fields is selected a "core" of information and knowledge thought necessary for the instruction of all children The topic of consumption has always been included as one of the areas of a "core" curriculum, and most colleges using this organization have given ample education on consumers' cooperation

A few schools utilize a guided experience curriculum in which the

[5] H B Brunner, C Maurice Wieting, and others, *What Our Schools Are Teaching* (New York Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940)

teacher assists the pupils to plan and to carry out activities useful both to themselves and to society. Units of work are selected from real life situations that are considered worth while by the child and the teacher. Students visit factories, travel, go on hikes, and come into contact with life situations whenever possible. Consumer education is considered so important in a guided experience curriculum that it is constantly stressed at all levels. Teachers and pupils work together in a really cooperative way.

A final possibility in curriculum organization would be to plan a separate course of study on consumers' cooperation. The advantages of such a plan would be that it would give the pupils an opportunity to secure a more thorough understanding of consumers' cooperation than would be otherwise possible. However, the likelihood of adding a separate course on consumers' cooperation is extremely slight in most schools. More feasible is the addition of a course on consumer education of which consumers' cooperation could be an important part.

Regardless of the type of curriculum organization used by any school, consumers' cooperation can be taught effectively. Units of work on consumers' cooperation can be prepared that are adaptable to any type of curriculum. Psychologists are agreed that children learn best when they study meaningful problems in which they are interested. It is the purpose of the unit to present materials so organized that they will be most easily understood. The emphasis is on activities so related that out of their doing will come understandings, appreciations, and skills. To illustrate the types of units on consumers' cooperation that could be used with any curriculum organization, the author recently prepared seven units on consumers' cooperation. The titles are: (1) The Consumers' Cooperative Movement; (2) Growth of the Consumers' Cooperative Movement; (3) Economic Principles of Consumers' Cooperation; (4) Cooperative Finance; (5) Determining Quality of Goods; (6) Consumers' Cooperation and Agriculture; (7) Vocational Opportunities in Consumers' Cooperation[*]

Each unit consists of a brief introduction, an outline of content, many suggested activities, suggestions for evaluation, and a bibliography. This material enables the teacher to give instruction on consumers' cooperation in many different classes at many different age levels.

Curriculum experts are agreed that it is essential to provide guidance

[*] C. Maurice Wieting, *How to Teach Consumers' Cooperation*, op. cit., pages 149–184

to teachers to assist them in making changes in the school program. Those who wish consumers' cooperation included in the curriculum are under heavy responsibility to provide all types of curriculum aids—courses of study, textbooks, pamphlets, charts, graphs, and motion pictures. Once these are prepared, a procedure must be worked out for calling the attention of teachers to the materials provided and educating them to the importance of the topic.

SUMMARY

While many schools fail to teach consumers' cooperation, those that do include the topic use these following procedures·

1. Separate classes study cooperation.
2. Two or more classes correlate their instruction on this topic.
3. Consumers' cooperation is included in the core curriculum as a part of the general topic of consumer education.
4. A separate class on consumer education or consumers' cooperation is added to the curriculum.
5. Consumers' cooperation is studied when it comes within the guided experience of the pupils.

Reasons for the failure to include consumers' cooperation in more curricula is due to the lack of suitable textbooks and courses of study, untrained teachers, and a general failure to include a study of crucial modern problems in the schools There seems to be a growing recognition of the importance of teaching such problems as consumers' cooperation and consumer education. Many normal schools and teachers colleges are instructing students in the fundamentals of consumers' cooperation, and the National Education Association Committee on Cooperatives is reaching many in-service teachers Cooperative associations are working closely with the public schools in supplying them with information and facts.

Educators recognize that it is their duty to help young people grow and develop a critical intelligence that will enable them to make wise

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choices in our democracy. The duty of the teacher is to act as a guide to these youths in the study of modern problems and the techniques of solving them, one of the most important of which is consumers' cooperation.

CAN CORPORATIONS GO TO SCHOOL?

S. R. LOGAN

Wendell Phillips declared that after chattel slavery the next and more difficult task must be to democratize the corporation, so that it will better exemplify and support popular government, and not jeopardize it.

Because education and statesmanship lagged, the case of chattel slavery versus liberty and union broke out in war. Because of similar lags the world over, we now have a whole world in convulsions. Still the issue is liberty and union in an increasingly industrialized and interdependent world. What are to be the nature and purpose of corporate organizations? Can democratic government control powerful "economic states" that interpenetrate states and nations? Can democratic political government survive if "economic governments" do not become more democratic, less autocratic and dynastic? Shall the corporation and the labor union (near-corporation) become increasingly democratic, or increasingly autocratic, testing whether governments, conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal, shall perish? What is to be the nature of the intricate collectivism that has sprung up in all industrialized countries? Should the schools study and teach as devotedly as the armed forces fight, that this collectivism may be democratic and consistent with basic American values?

Soldiers as soldiers can do little more than retain the chance to develop the democratic pattern. The final issue rests with education, the basis of popular government—economic as well as political. All educational devices are worth considering in a cause so urgent.

Is it too simple to suggest that we use corporations in schools just as we use toys and working models? Long before schools were known, and since, toys have been a means by which succeeding generations have taken on and eventually improved the culture of their elders. Toys, tools, simple machines of construction in the lower years, and complicated machines and working models in mechanics and science in the higher grades are common in schools; also organizations, in simple and ad-

vanced forms. Why not add the corporation, the social machinery of today that assembles tools, machines, materials, models, and men in a creative relationship in the production of wealth and welfare?

Inclusion of the corporation in a form and on a scale appropriate to the age of the children should be conducive to the healthy growth of children and to the democratization of corporate business, with benefit to all men.

Wendell Phillips's "democratized corporation" is presumably a corporation whose members, understanding democratic values and processes, desire and practise them in their corporate operations. Popular sovereignty—whether political or economic—is made possible and desirable by popular education. Indeed, our public schools have been established to enable the people to improve and extend popular sovereignty; to realize the dream of abundance, liberty, and justice for all.

EDUCATION FOR LIVING MUST INCLUDE EXPERIENCE WITH "CORPORATE FORM"

Inclusion of studious experience in small-scale corporate production and distribution in the curriculum of the schools in some degree restores to the education of youth the indispensable element of participation in economic planning, execution, and control which was lost when family industry and business gave way to the corporation. Both parents and teachers become interpreters and guides As their economic interests and vocabulary grow, children find themselves more able to communicate with parent and teacher concerning breadwinning and the organization of economic power Not only child and father, but teacher and father are brought into better mutual understanding and cooperation regarding "fundamentals."

Children in our junior high schools, like adults in all democratic countries, may belong simultaneously to public ownership corporations and to such dissimilar private corporations as cooperatives, nonprofit welfare organizations like the Red Cross, and profit companies All are good equipment, good because they are a means of healthy individual growth in character and understanding; and good because introduction to them by the school, where zeal for equality of opportunity and the public interest is dominant, promises to improve them as social institutions Examples of the cooperative form are described in this article However profit and public enterprises operate in the school on an equal footing with cooperatives

The cooperative fits well in the high school and college, themselves examples of public or of nonprofit private corporations, usually supported in part from profit company or corporation earnings by taxation or gift. Both school and cooperative are dedicated to the improvement and extension of popular government. Because of its utterly democratic nature, the cooperative strongly reinforces popular education as the basis of all popular sovereignty—political, economic, and social. It depends upon education of the rank and file for its own extension It requires the exercise of the responsibilities of ownership and the practice of equal manhood suffrage and majority rule.

As far as it goes, the cooperative movement has proved to be a natural corrective of monopolistic evils of big business, big government, and big labor; it exemplifies and supports representative federal government; it demonstrates democratic planning and mitigates the ups and downs of the speculative cycle; it eases the partisanship of politics, fortune, occupation, race, religion, and nationality, emphasizing the mutual interest of consumers. Because of its salutary effect upon national and world economy, educational, religious, agricultural, and labor organizations, many business men and the major political parties have declared for more of the cooperative type of business.

A COOPERATIVE BEE BUSINESS

In an ambitious new section, where a large school district had established several small twelve-year schools, farmers were undertaking to market their produce and purchase their supplies cooperatively. They were handicapped not only by lack of proficiency in bookkeeping, typewriting, salesmanship, and commercial law, but also by their lack of practical acquaintance with the stock company. During the "trust busting" days of Theodore Roosevelt and the liberalism of the Wilsonian "New Freedom," the farmers felt markedly unorganized and defenseless. With this background the superintendent, some of the teachers, and some of the parents got together to consider the role of the local schools in business education. Mere mechanical skills, like typing and bookkeeping, which would help their girls and boys to hold jobs in the city, were not enough. "What can be done in the schools that will be economically productive and at the same time a means of interesting and educating both young and old in agriculture, industry, and business?"

They found many things were needed, but decided to begin with honey. It was a newly settled region. There was not a colony of bees in

the entire district of 600 square miles. The family table was typically without delicacies. The people were hard up. They were suffering from the depredations of insects, especially grasshoppers. They were trying to start legumes and fruits. All of these facts seemed to point in a beeline to the promotion of a honey industry.

After considering different forms of ownership and operation, the group concluded that the cooperative type of company best suited the purpose. This led to a continuing study of the cooperative movement and the business principles that it demonstrated. Capital was raised, partly by issuing shares at 25 cents per share and partly by donation from the largest bee company in the country Beautiful stock certificates were printed and supplied at a nominal cost by the publisher of a daily paper, a former United States senator, and stock was subscribed by elementary- and high-school students and teachers. High-school students were elected *directors and the superintendent of schools became educational sponsor* of the new cooperative society.

In addition to occasional general membership meetings, which brought young people and teachers together from the schools of the district, members of the board of directors, accompanying the superintendent on his visiting rounds, held meetings of local groups of members in the various schools They recruited membership, lectured informally on the nature of their company, and gave shares as prizes for the best work done in nature study, particularly for the best studies of the pesky grasshoppers. The company also loaned observation hives of bees to schools.

Nearly every one in the schools and many adults throughout the district found something of special interest in the project. School life was broadened and vitalized Delicious clover honey soon began to appear practically without cost on the table of many families. A school principal, some years after the founding of the company, received from his own apiary at the "teacherage" an income exceeding his salary as principal Eventually, the region was shipping large amounts of honey and large amounts of clover and alfalfa seed from bee-pollinated legumes. Cooperatives of various kinds now flourish there, in harmony with other forms of ownership and operation, demonstrating "business of the people, by the people, and for the people."

IN AN AGRICULTURAL TOWN

In another school system in the same State, a cooperative was the means by which students provided themselves with school supplies of good qual-

ity at low cost and secured practical experience in high-class business. A number of these same students went about with their agricultural instructor among the farmers, helping with the organization and improvement of cooperative marketing and cooperative buying, rounding up stock for shipment to the cooperative terminal, grading potatoes, fruit, and other products, taking a vital part in the social and economic life of the community.

Some of the merchants feared that such activities might result in losses to themselves. On one occasion six merchants with whom the school supply cooperative was in direct competition appeared at a meeting of the school board to ask that merchandising be excluded from the schools. After spending the evening examining all angles, particularly the educational values involved, the spokesman of the group changed his position completely, complimented the schools upon their efforts to help children learn practical business on an idealistic plane, and offered his assistance in any way that he might be found useful. Four of his companions agreed with him, leaving only one of the six dissatisfied. Objections to assistance given by the school to some of the cooperative efforts of the farmers that tended to make them independent and to put them into competition with certain kinds of business already established in the town were not so readily overcome. Interested high-school students, farmers, merchants, ministers, bankers, lawyers, teachers, and others attended the School of Co-operative Economics which the public school sponsored and maintained several weeks during midwinters. Local leaders were reinforced by able leaders brought in from a distance. The high school's extensive collection of books on cooperatives was used and the public library cooperated. With increased understanding, even merchants and bankers, seeing that their own best interests lay in rising living standards and purchasing power, gradually withdrew their opposition, and some of them gladly assisted.

IN A SUBURBAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL—COOPERATIVE CREDIT

For the past six years children in a suburban junior high school, with the help of a teacher sponsor, have pooled their savings, made their rules, and borrowed from their pool according to their needs, with advantage to all, operating within the pattern established by the Federal Credit Union Act. Like other corporate enterprises of the school, this credit union is chartered by the school council.

It should be explained that the school council consists of students, who are elected by their respective constituencies, and the school principal, an ex-officio member It is the top governmental body of the school's self-governing system, embodying and combining functions similiar to those exercised by the legislative, judicial, and executive branches of our central government in Washington. The president and vice-president are elected by the school as a whole, two members are elected in each homeroom, and heads of corporations, labor unions, and standing committees of the council are ex-officio members

The credit union was suggested by an official of one of the country's largest banks as a means of helping children to understand banking. One of its principal promoters was a thirteen-year-old member of the credit union of a local urban cooperative. He and three or four others interested thirty of their fellow students in the project They studied credit unions on the side for several months, getting information and advice from people with credit union experience, reading printed matter, and publishing a mimeographed newspaper that featured the project Children were borrowing from teachers and others when they found themselves short of cash for their cafeteria lunch and school supplies, and many were careless about repayment. Naturally, teachers and parents were quick to see the advantage of a businesslike system owned and operated by the children themselves.

Loans are small but numerous, requiring a large amount of accurate bookkeeping and careful management. Members may borrow as much as fifty cents without a co-signer, and as much as seventy-five cents with a co-signer. Recently, when the principal found occasion to borrow seventy-five cents (an unexpected guest for lunch), the lending clerk courteously signed with him and handed him the money without delay. Larger loans must be approved by the board of directors. Really large loans—any amount above $3.00—require approval at a membership meeting. No collateral is required, loans being made exclusively on the basis of character and ability There are about one hundred fifty members, including several adults, in the school of four hundred thirty students Six to eight hundred loans are made yearly. In the three or four thousand loans made to date, not one cent has been lost in loans Twice when there has been an apparent small shortage in cash due to mistakes in making change and the like—a crack in the floor swallowed up several pennies—directors made good out of their own pockets Since directors take turns

keeping the office open, and check up on the business at weekly meetings, they are in closer touch with their business than are most directors in adult business organizations.

To alleviate the difficulty of figuring and collecting interest on loans of a few cents for only a day or a few days and to distribute the cost of service as equitably as possible, the board of directors has adopted a rule requiring a service charge of one cent on all loans, with penalties for failure to pay on or before the due date. On such small loans there is no interest charge, but interest is charged on the larger loans at the rate of 1 per cent per month on unpaid balances.

As the amount of cash on hand increases, the board encourages longer and larger loans to members. A chronic excess of cash over borrowings by members has stimulated inquiry into opportunities for safe investments for worthy purposes. The children's credit union, chartered by the school government, stands ready to lend a helping hand to the teachers' credit union, chartered by the United States Government.

The latter was organized some three years after the children's organization began its pioneering demonstration. Called the employees' credit union because it includes a few clerical workers and custodians, the teachers' organization maintains neighborly relations, inviting directors of the children's credit union to attend its membership and board meetings. The relatively large loans with which the employees' credit union deals—perhaps $100.00, or even more—impresses the children with the teachers' high status as financiers!

LEARNING INSURANCE (AND MORE) BY INSURING

A mutual insurance company was organized several years ago to soften the shock incident to the breakage of dishes in the cafeteria. It happened in this way. The chairman of the lunchroom committee reported to the council the sad case of two little girls who had dropped their trays and broken their dishes. Their feelings were badly hurt and the cost of replacement played havoc with their allowance. At the end of the recital, a council member called out his conviction: "There ought to be insurance!" So the council appointed a committee to see whether it could be provided.

After weeks of study, during which a parent insurance broker acted as a special consultant, a company was ready to be chartered and to issue

policies that would provide 75 per cent coverage of losses. The cost of the policy was arrived at by means of a research that revealed the average cost for breakage per child during the preceding three years.

The concern of policy holders to reduce breakage and recover a good refund on their premiums resulted in surprising reduction of breakage. Policies now cost about one third as much and losses are covered 100 per cent instead of 75 per cent. Apparently there has never been an attempt to cheat the company. Arithmetic and social-studies classes report increased interest in insurance In fact, some of the active members were greatly interested in that part of the Senator O'Mahoney investigation which dealt with insurance companies.

Efforts to spread the blessings of insurance have appeared. Several members of the bicycle committee, with the assistance of the father of one, a distinguished lawyer, began work last year on a plan for insuring bicycle accessories against loss and damage. From time to time children, confusing police protection with insurance protection, have urged that bicycle guards be required to pay for equipment damaged or stolen on the school grounds. Consequently, it is not surprising that the guards strongly advocate insurance. They point out, however, that because of the excellence of their policing, insurance costs should be extremely small. Whether such protection will first be provided by a mutual company, a stock company, or a government authority is anybody's guess.

The government type already exists in connection with the stamping of names on fountain pens. This story involves the Skokie Co-op, a cooperative society which owns and operates a store. Having agreed with the local chamber of commerce that it would hold prices at the going level, the store's earnings (savings) are quite respectable, and it is occasionally able to make not only a substantial refund to individuals in proportion to their purchases, but also to vote a handsome "social dividend" to the school as a whole. Thinking it important that lost pens be returned to their owners promptly and surely and that the responsibilities of personal ownership be emphasized, the co-op purchased a stamping machine for the sum of $165.00 and stamped one pen free for every one. Later, the lost and found committee, a sort of government bureau, assumed the task of stamping pens. Occasionally, a pen was damaged in the process Cautious owners did not want to take any risk, but they did want their names in handsome gold letters on their pens Consequently, the school council authorized replacement of damaged pens if the owners

had paid an insurance fee of five cents Finally, after much debate and some heavy thinking, the fee was made to vary according to the value of the insured pen. So it came about that the co op's $165 00 "social dividend" machine was accepted by the government and operated free, except for the insurance, for the benefit of every citizen and to raise the moral standards of the school.

COOPERATIVE MERCHANDISING

The Skokie Co op has rendered a merchandising service for the entire school during the past six years Its membership, however, has not exceeded 160 and has been at times considerably less. Partly as a result of its abundance of operating capital, it has not shown the zeal for expansion of membership and for education that should be expected of a cooperative. Perhaps it needs the competition that profit stores would give it It inherited its noncompetitive position.

Seven years ago the store was a typical school store; namely, a public ownership kind of institution run by a teacher with the help of students, who were expected to benefit in mathematics and in bookkeeping and salesmanship skills. In still earlier years it had been a profit corporation, organized within an arithmetic class by the teacher, who was trying to help children understand the buying and selling of stock as well as merchandise. The decision to start a cooperative to take over the public ownership store followed study of different corporate forms by social-studies classes.

THE RESEARCH AND PRODUCTION COMPANY

For a long time the store co-op distributed as a social dividend, free to all members of the school, fountain-pen ink made by the science department Recently, however, it has helped to start a separate corporation under the sponsorship of the science teacher for industrial research and production. It sells its products, ink, cold cream, fly poison, and paste, under its own trade name, *Respro*

Had there been more aggressive leadership in the co-op at the time, probably it would have retained control of this manufacturing corporation and it might have secured permission from the Cooperative League to use the co-op label, which might have opened up channels for wider cooperative distribution of its products. Such relatively elaborate machinery, however, is a bit complicated for such young children It would be more appropriate at the senior-high level.

EVOLVING ORGANIZATIONS

The economy of the little junior high school is varied, flexible, and ever changing. Initiative and social invention are encouraged Organized services grow out of the immediate situation, the studies, and aspirations of succeeding school generations, and they are the real thing, no matter how toylike they may seem when tested by adult standards and preferences. Being real, though juvenile, they are suitable for analogy and comparison with real institutions everywhere.

As business evolves, the general government develops accordingly. The school council found it necessary in 1937 to enact a general corporation law, which has since been amended repeatedly. It provides for incorporation and dissolution, prohibits proxy voting, and requires shareholders to attend all shareholders' meetings, provides for termination of membership when leaving the school, and repurchase of shares, and payment of earned interest and dividends.

TEACHERS, SUBJECTS, SCHEDULES

The economic enterprises, like other self-governmental projects, are considered to be as important in the curriculum as are social studies and arithmetic; in fact, they are social studies and arithmetic, and a great deal more besides Teachers sponsor them as seriously as they teach a class, and are programmed accordingly. As sponsors and as class teachers, they help the children to carry out their responsibilities successfully and to learn as much in connection with them as possible. Writing the minutes, keeping the books, making the reports, struggling with problems of management and policy, and prompt and faithful execution of trusts hold a high rank in subject classes

To reduce interruption of class sessions, meetings of boards are held at certain hours on a certain day of the week Notice of membership meetings must be given two days in advance. The student's adviser and social-studies teacher determine the extent of his activities and see that his program is as well integrated and balanced as possible. Probably a third of the students take an active part in the business organizations These give one to two school hours out of thirty to meetings and special tasks incident to them While this is a small proportion, like the vitamins in one's diet, it must be remembered that these activities are disproportionately potent and vitalizing

RESULTS

A real attempt at valuation would require another article. Briefly, the teachers believe that they help:

1. To broaden teachers and parents, integrate subjects, vitalize teaching
2. To unite teachers, children, and parents by means of their interest in breadwinning and economic power, and by means of a common economic vocabulary that enables them to understand one another on this subject
3. To imbue children with the spirit of democracy and to engage them educationally in the exercise of popular sovereignty in economic organization
4. To give every child status, the security of being useful and needed, the habits and skills of faithful execution of trusts in a vital area of culture, and the personal growth that results from self-dedication to a worthy enterprise

Without doubt such projects in free economic enterprise are good for children and teachers. Is it not reasonable to expect them to influence the corporation of the future, with advantage to popular sovereignty and the common welfare?

S. R Logan is Associate Superintendent of Schools in Winnetka, Illinois. The use of a corporate structure in the setting up of business facilities by the undergraduates at Winnetka has attracted wide attention in educational circles. Cooperative corporations are only one of the types used and studied. Mr Logan is also Liaison Officer on Cooperatives and Credit Unions of the Progressive Education Association

CREDIT UNIONS MOLD CHARACTER

J. ORRIN SHIPP

John Zadel was a truck driver. He had a wife and two children. He found it difficult to make his pay check provide life's necessities for his family. Through painful economizing John managed to save a few dollars in his community credit union. John saw an opportunity. If he were able to buy a truck, he could get a contract hauling for a new State highway. With ordinary luck he would soon be in business for himself. Then his wife, his children would no longer be denied sufficient food, clothing, adequate medical care and education

John applied to his credit union for a loan so he could buy the truck.

The credit union granted the loan and everything went as John had planned for five months. Then John became ill. He was flat on his back in bed. He could not drive his truck. He had no income. His family needed money for food. The doctor's bill was rapidly soaring; in addition his loan to the credit union was overdue.

John expected to lose everything and to be set back so far that he would never again dare to even hope for anything better.

The board of directors of the credit union met. They discussed John's case. Should they replevin his truck and wash their hands of the matter? If they did that now they would recover enough from the sale of the truck to liquidate John's loan.

The board of directors decided differently. They hired a man to drive John's truck John's contract was protected. At the end of six months John was completely recovered. The earnings of the truck paid for not only the driver's salary, but also John's doctor bills, his family's living expenses, and the payments on the truck.

Thousands of similar stories could be told. For this is more or less routine in the twelve thousand credit unions operating in North America, the Canal Zone, and the Hawaiian Islands, in every province of Canada, and every State of the United States. These credit unions serve over 4,000,000 members. They have assets in excess of $375,000,000. They loan about $400,000,000 annually to their members Credit unions operate well among employee groups, farmers, church groups, labor unions, and lodges or cooperatives.

The credit union is a cooperative thrift and credit organization. It has three objectives (1) to encourage thrift, (2) to provide a source of credit, and (3) to educate in the democratic control and management of finance.

Credit unions are easy to organize and relatively simple to operate. Seven persons of a group having a common bond of interest such as employment, association, or residence may apply either to State or Federal Government for a credit union charter. Their records are audited by representatives of the chartering agency usually once a year.

Since credit unions are cooperative each member has one vote no matter how many dollars he may have on deposit. He exercises his vote once a year at the annual membership meeting. At that time he also elects directors and committee members, decides how much to pay the treasurer (the only officer who usually may be compensated), and how much the dividend rate on shares will be.

The credit union idea has been steadily spreading since the first credit union was organized in 1848 at Flammersfeld, Germany. The first credit union in North America was organized at Levis, Quebec, in 1900. St. Mary's Parish at Manchester, New Hampshire, operates the first credit union organized in the United States. Massachusetts passed the first credit union enabling law in 1909. The credit union movement developed rapidly in the United States as a result of the work of the Credit Union National Extension Bureau. This bureau functioned from 1921 to 1934. It was financed as a disinterested public service by J. A. Filene. It obtained the passage of many State laws and the Federal Act. It also organized many credit unions.

The bureau's work is now carried on by State leagues and a Credit Union National Association, which are owned, operated, and controlled by credit unions.

Credit unions are operated by all kinds of people from pigstickers in packing houses to college professors. They have been remarkably successful. They are clearly demonstrating that the average person can manage his own finances and does not have to be a superman or hire a superman to do it for him. Experience has shown that members repay their loans to credit unions readily and without the difficulty other organizations usually have. Many leaders in the worlds of business, labor, agriculture, religion, and cooperation have put themselves on record as to the effect of cooperatives in reducing the distress of employees, and making a constructive contribution to people's welfare. The credit union has demonstrated its value in developing the individual and in developing the community under a wide variety of conditions. Like any other form of cooperative the scope of its effect is dependent on the degree to which its members understand its implications.

J. Orrin Shipe went to the Credit Union National Association as its first education director in January 1940 after a number of years of experience working with the credit unions in the Buffalo, New York, area.

NEXT STEPS IN COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

ROBERT L. SMITH

The growth and increasing unity in the cooperative movement in the United States, which the previous articles reflect, obviously indicate that changes in emphasis, method, and scope of cooperative education should be taking place at an equally rapid rate. They are. To many, the term cooperative education is baffling. To those who are unhappy unless terms are subject to clear-cut definition and limitation, the concept of cooperative education is bound to bring unhappiness for, to the cooperator, it covers a multitude of methods and fields Cooperators find the distinctions between business and education almost impossible to draw, so interwoven and interacting are both processes. For practical purposes the movement does attempt to shape a different focus for "publicity" and "training" and "cooperative fundamentals," but it is hard to know just when one has crossed the line.

Funk and Wagnall's defines education as "the systematic development and cultivation of the normal powers of intellect, feeling and conduct so as to render them efficient in some particular form of living or for life in general." In a world where "life in general" has not been conceived along cooperative lines, cooperative education is faced with the necessity of education to render people's faculties efficient in this particular (*i.e.*, cooperative) form of living. Cooperative education therefore has four aspects.

1. *Education of the public* Some would argue that this is publicity or advertising. Cooperators would concede this to be so in part, but would insist that the process must be carried much farther. Cooperatives in their publicity seek not only to get their name before the public but to get across the fundamental ways in which cooperatives differ from ordinary businesses, the structural reasons why cooperatives function in the public interest, the responsibilities that must be assumed to use a cooperative wisely or start one soundly While publicity may attract new curiosity, the process of educating the curious must begin immediately or nothing is gained. There is no magic about cooperatives They offer a sound and effective method of organizing business only to the extent that people understand how to apply the technique both in spirit and practice.

2. *Membership education* Tombstones are the inevitable markers of

cooperatives whose membership education has been inadequate. The job is never done. First must come an understanding of how the co op meets their needs, then its structure, methods, philosophy, historical development, relation to basic economic, ethical, and business problems. Then, forever, the facts about the co op: its business, its financing, its possibilities for expansion, its services and facilities and headaches

A part of the membership will become leadership There is a tremendous job to keep horizons broadened, to develop capacity for analysis and sound judgment on business, educational, and organizational matters.

3. *Employee education* Paid personnel is in a key position in cooperatives. The men and women at the checking counter or at the gas pump or on the insurance agency force give the public their introduction to co-ops many times. They must be equally efficient in the discharge of their technical responsibilities and in their interpretation of the cooperative idea. To the extent that they see their work as a career they build a movement; to the extent that they see it as a job they lose the chance to make a life as well as a living.

4. *Education as citizens.* Only part of the education done by cooperatives is conscious and organized, as Dr. Bogardus has pointed out in his article. Much is the direct result of the sense of individual responsibility, independent judgment, combined with group action and group achievement that the cooperatives foster. Whether or not this carries over into other community relationships is largely dependent on two factors. The first is the period of development, and the second, leadership conscious of these opportunities for community service. When a cooperative is new, it is faced with so many problems—relationships, discovering leadership, gaining experience, raising capital, gaining adequate volume, breaking in personnel—that its members find little time to use their cooperative approach in meeting community problems beyond the sphere of immediate application. Yet there is ample evidence that at some point when a degree of stability is achieved, members of a cooperative in which an effective educational program has been conducted, in which there is a sense of belonging to a movement and having a conscious cooperative philosophy, begin to extend their influence to other community ventures

Just as American men and women have for years carried on activities of a cooperative nature such as threshing, car pools, fraternity living, without ever appreciating the cooperative character of the activity or its implications for use in other fields, so the cooperative technique can remain

limited and circumscribed in its application without inspired leadership and conscious effort to apply it to an ever broadening area.

MANY MEDIA USED

Cooperators have been making rapid strides in their use of a variety of educational media. For many years pamphleteering has been an important form of cooperative education. Most libraries today have a good collection of books on cooperatives covering a wide range of approach. The last eight years in particular have seen extensive development in this field.

The cooperative press is now reaching impressive proportions. Practically every regional cooperative wholesale now has its newspaper. The organizations making up the membership of the Cooperative League of the U. S. A. publish 16 papers and magazines reaching 778,000 subscribers. These publications are increasingly carrying news behind the news, printing stories of significance to consumers skipped or minimized in the big dailies, carrying features on trends in economics, planning, monopoly, and other issues of public concern.

Only in January 1942 had integration of America's consumer co-ops developed far enough to produce a national documentary film, *Here Is Tomorrow*. This was the first step in what is now planned as a sustained advance in the use of the sound film as an educational instrument.

For the first time in the history of the American movement cooperatives are on the air with a coast-to-coast radio program "Here Is Tomorrow." The conviction has been growing among the membership that consumers' cooperation in an age of potential abundance has become an essential way of doing business instead of just a better way. Funds were raised by individual contributions to acquaint Americans with the existence of an alternative to stateism that meets the tests of democratic control combined with rationalization, and distribution at cost combined with safe and sound provision for business hazards. Oddly enough, the large circulation of cooperative newspapers among the membership is not paralleled by the dissemination of leadership material. At the present time plans are under way for the expansion and development of the present small national organ into an enlarged publication addressed to the leadership of the movement

Since the fall of 1942, study materials have been produced on a national scale, both supplementing and replacing the material prepared by the regionals. This will undoubtedly be one of the significant new trends

ADVERTISING DEBATE RECONCILED

The never ending debate between members of the advertising profession and their critics as to whether advertising is an important educational force or a social waste becomes reconciled in cooperative advertising. Members need to know the facts about items. They need to learn of new items. They want ideas for the better use of old items. Since cooperatives are purchasing rather than selling organizations, they are a wide-open heaven for ethical advertising men, for there is no incentive to fool oneself or waste one's own money. I say a wide open heaven advisedly, for the fact is that little imaginative use has been made of the unique opportunity for education through cooperative advertising. What can be done is illustrated by the experience of the Eastern Cooperative Wholesale in featuring dry skim milk. Few people understood what food values dry skim milk has, how it can be used, and the fact that the spray-process milk when reconstituted by merely adding water can be used for drinking. Full-page advertisements in the *Cooperator*, store posters and displays, sampling at membership meetings, and investigation by nutrition-study groups soon had thousands of people using dry skim milk and getting five quarts of milk for the cost of two. When a bill was introduced in Congress calling for a change in name from dry skim milk to "separated milk" because "to the public skim milk was just so much hog feed, not good nourishment for a decent human being," we were able to make this statement: "The issue of our publication, the *Cooperator*, which carried the announcement of dry skim milk with recipes and use suggestions produced one of the best mail responses we have had. The response seems to have come from several different types of interest: families desperately needing the food values of milk, appreciative of being able to get it within their budget through the economical packages being offered in Co-op stores; families with more adequate budgets, but interested in wise and skillful use of their food budget; families appreciative of the convenience value of dry skim milk for camping, cooking, and uses where refrigeration is difficult. As a result of our experience, it is our conviction that the American public is not only interested but excited about dry skim milk, and no large scale educational problem is involved in securing public use of it. The name presents no obstacle and the only thing that would seem to limit its distribution would be any change which would necessitate rise instead of a decline in the cost of the item."

At the present time a program of educational advertising along the same lines is being planned on dry brewers' yeast, the best and least expensive source of Vitamin B complex. Commercial agencies have kept its uses buried in part by labeling it as a cure for pellagra and thereby casting social stigma on its use.

HELP WANTED

At any moment one must choose from the infinite number of next steps in cooperative education those few which trends and needs and opportunities bring into focus most sharply. Here are some on which the help of teachers and researchers would prove especially helpful.

1. *Education of school children.* The articles by C. Maurice Wieting and S R. Logan point a significant next step in cooperative education. The folk schools of Denmark are reputed to have laid a foundation of cooperative patterns of action that led one author to say "When a Dane is faced with a problem he forms a cooperative." The dual development of including cooperatives in the curriculum and giving students an opportunity to observe the strengths and weaknesses of cooperative as well as profit and public businesses through firsthand experience is a next step that can be taken only by teachers. The effect on education by cooperatives will of course be far-reaching.

Cooperatives are putting much time and effort on adult education on cooperative fundamentals, the necessity for which would be eliminated after a decade of elementary- and high-school education of the type being conducted at Winnetka Moreover, much time and effectiveness is lost when entirely new habits of thought and relationship have to be established in adults.

2. *Planned sequence in education of leadership.* Cooperative education needs badly the help of sociologists and psychologists on the question of planned sequence in education and the means of measuring progress At present a consumer can join and find some facilities and materials for learning the fundamentals of cooperative philosophy and methods. But from there on it is up to him. There are some books, there are some leadership publications, there are some conferences But there is no planned series of steps or materials by which a person interested in the field of cooperative education can extend and perfect his knowledge and have the satisfaction of setting a course and seeing the milestones passed This lack is equally present for one interested in cooperative business or cooperative

finance. Most seasoned organizations of men, women, or children have developed a sequence of training and methods of recognizing achievement. Most psychologists are critical of present programs and methods of this sort as making the award the goal instead of making the satisfaction resulting from the activity the end reward. Cooperators would welcome the help of interested educators on this problem. From the standpoint of the individual there is a need to establish a pattern by which a person can plan a career of study and activity as a layman in the field of cooperative finance, for example It ought to be possible to provide certain pamphlets, certain books, certain articles, certain methods of charting, etc., coupled with practical work on a budget committee or an audit committee or a finance committee of a local cooperative or a similar committee of a regional association, and to develop a form of recognition and motivation sociologically and psychologically sound.

From the standpoint of the organization a means of measurement of educational progress is needed. Some method of checking the rate at which a new member moves from a curious purchaser to a convinced cooperator, and from a convinced cooperator to an effective one, would do much to facilitate setting objectives and checking results. This implies obviously both quantitative and qualitative measurement.

3. *Training of personnel.* Thus far cooperatives have scarcely used modern methods of job analysis and vocational aptitude testing. The help of educators is badly needed in analyzing such a complex problem as "What makes a good manager of a co-op food store?" Next steps in training will probably be closely related to analysis of the aptitude of successful and unsuccessful personnel. On this, help would be welcomed.

4. *Farm-city relationships.* Consumer cooperatives are one of the few natural bridges between farm and city dwellers. As consumers, the interest of a farmer or a townsman is identical in insurance protection at low cost, or better groceries for less money, or gasoline for car or tractor. The need for a philosophy of life combined with a practical mode of action that is based on the assumption that the good of one is tied to the good of all is shared by both farm and city dweller. In practical business terms this fact has been clearly demonstrated. The cooperative Farm Bureau Mutual Automobile Insurance Company, which was started by Ohio farmers seventeen years ago, has become the fifth largest auto casualty mutual in the United States, and in the process consumers in towns and cities have become 52 per cent of the membership. The significance of this in sociological terms is less obvious. To bring out the points of common

interest and develop understanding of each others' problems on points of difference, experiments are being conducted in Ohio with study-action groups consciously bringing together a cross section of farm and city people. In the Minneapolis area similar experiments are under way, although there the emphasis is more on farm-labor relationships than farm-city. One of the unique sociological facts about the cooperative movement in the United States is its vertical structure cutting across usual horizontal class lines. Thus in the east the cooperatives started two decades ago consisted mostly of manual workers Those started in the last eight years have had largely white-collar leadership. In the last six months, evidence has been growing that a wave of interest on the part of manual workers is building up. All are in the same movement, including the farm membership which is by far the largest fraction. This achievement, while a real contribution to national unity, presents serious problems of methods and materials for cooperative education.

5. *Educating for a people's peace.* Cooperatives can be genuinely proud of the extent to which the acts of the movement in the sphere of tolerance and international relationships coincide with cooperative philosophy. The problem of the development of the individual in this respect is no greater than that faced by the churches or other groups in the nation aware of the challenge But our problem is simpler only in that our common meeting ground is our universally similar interests as consumers. The daily step-by-step progress of cooperatives toward a better world presents no conflict with their ultimate goal and their methods provide a happy unity between conviction and conduct not possible where the focus of an organization is on other than consumer interests. Nonetheless, it is obvious that not all cooperators have been touched by the movement's basic concepts of democracy and brotherhood, and, further, that not all who have are sufficiently informed on global economics or global sociology to have the judgment and tolerance that is going to be needed No problem of greater significance will face American educators than this one. Cooperatives offer an unusually fertile field for effective education along these lines, but cooperative education will need all the help possible in materials and methods to meet their opportunity.

SUMMARY

In summary, we find the cooperative movement in America conducting a broad educational program in relation to the public, its membership, its employees, and the responsibilities of cooperators as citizens In

this program almost every conceivable type of education is used, with the discussion method playing an extremely important role An extensive press is gaining in quality, but materials directed to leadership are still limited. Use of films and radio is just beginning to come into the picture on a large scale with national coordination.

There are at least five educational jobs to be done on which the help of educators would be greatly appreciated:

1 The development of an understanding of cooperatives at grade and high-school and college levels through both the curriculum and extra-curricular activities

2. The development of a planned sequence of leadership training materials, forms of recognition, and methods of measuring progress in this field

3. The development of techniques of job analysis and aptitude testing as a basis for advance in employee training programs

4. The development of methods and materials that would lead to greater use of the opportunity for bringing together farm and city dwellers through cooperatives

5. The development of materials and methods for backing up the unique opportunity of cooperatives to play a significant role in postwar reconstruction by the development of adequate understanding on the part of individual cooperators

REFERENCES

Books, pamphlets, and motion pictures listed in this section can be secured from:

Eastern Cooperative League
135 Kent Avenue
Brooklyn, New York

The Cooperative League of the U.S A.
167 West 12th Street
New York City

BOOKS

The Morale of Democracy, by JERRY VOORHIS. New York: The Greystone Press 93 pages. Co op edition, 50 cents

Three speeches of Congressman Voorhis, celebrating twenty-five years of the cooperative movement in America, summarize the growth of the movement, outline four major national problems which cooperation solves, and set forth the grounds of democratic hope for a new world With an introduction by Wallace J Campbell of the Cooperative League of the U S.A and an epilogue by Dr J P. Warbasse

The People's Business, by JOSHUA K BOLLES. New York Harper and Brothers. 170 pages Co-op edition, $1 00 Regular price, $2 00

The growth of the consumer cooperative movement is vividly and comprehensively described by an experienced newspaperman who traveled 5,000 miles around the United States to see for himself why and how it works, why over 2,500,000 families are active in it, why last year they did a business of close to a billion dollars, and why the movement is growing more rapidly today than ever before Those who are just beginning their cooperative book reading will like this one for a starter

How to Teach Consumers' Cooperation, by C MAURICE WIETING New York Harper and Brothers 188 pages Co-op edition, $1.50 Regular price, $2 50

Educators will welcome Dr Wieting's book, presenting as it does the results of his experience in the curriculum laboratory at Teachers College, Columbia He surveys the present status of consumers' cooperation, as well as methods of teaching it, shows how it can be worked into curricula in different ways, and suggests units suitable for several types of classes

Cooperative Democracy, by JAMES PETER WARBASSE New York, Harper and Brothers. 4th edition 270 pages Special Cooperative League edition, $1 50

This volume, which has been published in six languages since it first appeared in 1923, is still the basic book presenting a discussion of the philosophy, methods, accomplishments, and possibilities of the cooperative movement and its relation to the state, science, art, commerce, and other systems of economic organization It has been widely used as a textbook in schools in this country.

How to Buy More for Your Money, by SIDNEY MARGOLIUS New York Modern Age Books 84 pages. $1.00

Presents the consumer cooperatives as a place for consumers to buy more and better things for their dollars This book covers advice on most family needs, including food, furniture, clothes, furnishings, household supplies, cosmetics, etc

The Story of Tompkinsville by MARY ELLICOTT ARNOLD New York The Cooperative League 102 pages Cloth, $1 00, paper, 65 cents

How ten coal miners in Nova Scotia worked together with the author to build their own houses and rebuild their lives Recommended to American social workers, pastors, and others vitally concerned with human rehabilitation Provides detailed data on how to go about a venture of this kind

The Consumers' Cooperative as a Distributive Agency, by ORIN E BURLEY New York McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc 323 pages, $3 00

A well-rounded, objective treatment of consumers' cooperative distributive methods and policies, the performance of marketing functions, personnel and membership relations, etc

Detailed consideration is given the various types of retail and wholesale cooperatives, and the "super" cooperative wholesale societies that function on a national scope.

A Cooperative Economy, by Benson Y. Landis. New York: Harper and Brothers. 210 pages. Co-op edition, $1.00. Regular price, $2.00.

This book describes all the movements in the United States making for an economic democracy: the main voluntary cooperative movements—purchasing, finance, marketing; and five broad trends in "public cooperation"—taxation, regulation, public ownership, public credit, and the steps taken toward social security and national social standards. There are also discussions of labor unions, the family type farm, independent business, the professions, international cooperation, economic duties and rights.

MOTION PICTURES

Let's Cooperate. 16 mm. silent, 2½ reels, color. Rental, $6.00.

The activities of the students of the Pine Mountain, Ky., Settlement School in establishing and running a co-op store which serves the community as well as the students interestingly portrayed.

Here Is Tomorrow. 16 mm. sound, 3 reels. Also 35 mm. sound. Rental, $7.50.

A stirring documentary film telling in human terms the achievements of thousands of farmers and urban workers in building a "people's business" through working together with their neighbors.

Consumers Serve Themselves. 16 mm. sound or silent, 1 reel, color. Rental, $3.00 sound, $2.00 silent.

Co-op grocery distribution on the eastern seaboard. Scenes are typical of the activities of any co-op or wholesale, and show how cooperators are providing themselves with tested quality products.

The Co-ops Are Comin'. 16 mm. silent, 2½ reels, color, or black and white. Rental, $6.50, for color film; $3.00, black and white.

A visual record of cooperative progress in the Middle West. Photographed in connection with the first all-American 2,600 mile Co-op Tour in 1941, you visit with the tourists' cooperative mills and wholesales, department and grocery stores, gas stations, insurance companies, and the first cooperatively owned oil refinery and oil wells in this country.

Planning for a Saner World. 16 mm. sound, 2 reels, black and white. Rental, $3.00.

Delegates to the 13th Biennial Congress of the Cooperative League of the U.S.A.—farmers and city dwellers, discussing and acting on the problems facing consumers.

The Turn of the Tide. 16 mm. sound, 4½ reels, color. Rental, $15.00.

A dramatization of the story of the Maine lobster fishermen.

The Credit Union—John Doe's Bank. 16 mm. sound or silent, black and white or colored, 3 reels. Rental, $4.00, $6.00, $7.00, or $10.00, depending upon type of film.

PAMPHLETS

1. *Here Is Tomorrow*, Wallace J Campbell — 10 cents
   A summary of consumer cooperatives in America with pictures and commentary from the motion picture of the same name

2 *Short Introduction to Consumers' Cooperation*, Ellis Cowling — 15 cents
   A simple, readable outline of cooperative history and principles

3. *Credit Unions—The People's Banks*, Maxwell Stewart — 10 cents
   Introduction and description of cooperative "baby banks"

4 *Cooperation The Dominant Economic Idea of the Future* — 10 cents
   Henry A Wallace's statement of the need for both consumer and producer co-ops.

5. *Cooperation between Producers and Consumers*, Murray D. Lincoln and E R Bowen — 10 cents
   Two discussions of the relation of producer, marketing, and consumer cooperatives

6 *How St. F. X University Educates for Action.* — 20 cents
   Methods of adult education in Nova Scotia cooperatives.

7. *Guide for Discussion Circles*, C. R Hutchinson — 10 cents
   How to conduct discussion groups

8 *Cooperatives and Peace*, Harold Fey. — 5 cents
   How to remove economic causes of war

9. *Careers in Consumer Cooperatives*, Clarence Failor — 25 cents
   Conditions of cooperative employment

10 *How to Organize a Cooperative Buying Club*, Eastern Cooperative Wholesale — 50 cents
   First steps in forming a co-op.

REGIONAL AND NATIONAL COOPERATIVES AFFILIATED WITH THE COOPERATIVE LEAGUE OF THE U.S.A.

Name and Address	*Publication*
American Farmers Mutual Automobile Insurance Company, 2233 University Avenue, St Paul, Minn	
Associated Cooperatives of Northern California, 815 Lydia Street, Oakland, Cal	*Cooportunity*
Central Cooperative Wholesale, Superior, Wis.	*Cooperative Builder*
Central States Cooperatives, Inc , 1535 South Peoria Street, Chicago, Ill	*Co-op News*
Consumers Book Cooperative, 27 Coenties Slip, New York, N Y.	*Readers Observer*
Consumers Cooperative Association, North Kansas City, Mo	*The Cooperative Consumer*
Consumers Cooperatives Associated, Amarillo, Texas	*The Producer-Consumer*

Name and Address	*Publication*
Cooperative Distributors, Inc., 13 Astor Place, New York, N. Y.	*Consumers Defender*
Consumers Cooperative Wholesale, 7218 South Hoover, Los Angeles, Cal	*South California Cooperator*
Cooperative Recreation Service, Delaware, Ohio	*The Recreation Kit*
Eastern Cooperative League, 135 Kent Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y	*The Cooperator*
Eastern Cooperative Wholesale, Inc., 135 Kent Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y.	*The Cooperator*
Farm Bureau Cooperative Association, 246 North High Street, Columbus, Ohio	*Ohio Cooperator*
Farm Bureau Mutual Automobile Insurance Company, 236 North High Street, Columbus, Ohio	*Ohio Farm Bureau News*
Farm Bureau Services, 221 North Cedar Street, Lansing, Mich	*Michigan Farm News*
Farmers Cooperative Exchange, Raleigh, N. C	*The Carolina Cooperator*
Farmers' Union Central Exchange, 1200 North Concord Street, South St. Paul, Minn.	*Farmers Union Herald*
Grange Cooperative Wholesale, 3104 Western Avenue, Seattle, Wash	*Grange Cooperative News*
Indiana Farm Bureau Cooperative Association, 47 Pennsylvania Avenue, Indianapolis, Ind.	*Hoosier Farmer*
Midland Cooperative Wholesale, 739 Johnson Street, N.E., Minneapolis, Minn.	*Midland Cooperator*
National Cooperatives, Inc., 608 South Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.	
Pacific Coast Student Co-op League, 2315 Dwight Way, Berkeley, Cal.	*Campus Co-op News Letter*
Pacific Supply Cooperative, Walla Walla, Wash	*Pacific Northwest Cooperator*
Pennsylvania Farm Bureau Cooperative Association, 3607 Derry Street, Harrisburg, Pa.	*Pennsylvania Co-op Review*
Southeastern Cooperative League, Carrollton, Ga	*Southeastern Cooperator*
United Cooperatives, Inc., Indianapolis, Ind	
Workmen's Mutual Fire Insurance Society, 227 East 85th Street, New York, N. Y.	
Fraternal Members	
Credit Union National Association, Madison, Wis	*The Bridge*
Division	
Rochdale Institute, 167 West 12th Street, New York, N. Y.	*Rochdale Cooperator*

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EDITORIAL

The armed forces today maintain the most comprehensive educational system ever developed by any nation. Every man and woman entering military service spends from four to thirteen weeks in an intensive training program. Over fifty per cent of these millions are given still further training in specialist schools varying from six weeks to eleven months. The majority of these schools are conducted by the armed forces in camps, posts, and stations, others are in schools and colleges.

In one specialist school recently visited, the men were in classes six days a week from 7.30 to 11.30 and 1.15 to 3.15. Classes were limited to 25 and instructors were selected as far as possible from those who had had previous teaching experience I have never seen such complete laboratory equipment as in this specialist school, such seriousness of purpose as shown by the men as they listened intently in the classroom and followed every instruction in the shop One wonders how far this training program for specialists may have value in civilian education.

The articles in this issue relate directly to the nontraining field or to schools and colleges. The omission, except on the college level, of specialist training suggested above is in no way an indication of its importance. Rather, it is one of the inevitable and unfortunate "gaps" in attempting to cover so large a field within a single issue

FRANCIS J BROWN

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CIVILIAN AID IN THE ARMED FORCES' EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

FRANCIS KEPPEL.
Secretary, Joint Army and Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation

I

A proposal for an educational program in the United States Army was put in final form by a group of educators on January 23, 1941, and submitted to the War Department in February, through the Joint Army and Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation. That group had been formed on February 12, 1941, by the Secretaries of War and Navy, to act as a liaison between the welfare, education, and recreation programs conducted for men in service by the Army, Navy, Federal Security Agency, Red Cross, and United Service Organization. Its membership consisted of appropriate representatives of these departments or agencies, and representatives of the public. In addition to maintaining proper liaison, the Committee was instructed to advise the Secretaries on the success of the program as a whole, and make recommendations on its improvement. Dr. Clarence Dykstra, a member of the Committee, and at that time Director of Selective Service, was particularly interested in the educational program of the services and stimulated the writing of the report in the month during which the Committee was being organized. The report was discussed at the Committee's early meetings and referred to the appropriate authorities in the Army and Navy. The report stated:

> The media through which education may be carried on are many and will vary with individual camps and with levels of ability of personnel within the camps. Those most readily applicable to an educational program within the Army include motion pictures, radio, the drama, music, discussion groups, library services, lectures and organized instruction through correspondence and through class work.

By January 21, 1943, each one of these media was being used by the Army and the Navy and certain of them by the two large civilian agencies cooperating with the War and Navy Departments —the Red Cross and the USO. Series of films on the background of World War II are being prepared and shown to all Army and Navy personnel. At the time of writing, four of the seven have been completed, each of 50 minutes in length, entitled *Prelude to War, The Nazis Strike, Divide and Conquer,* and *The Battle of Britain.* The films to follow in the series will bring the soldier or sailor up to the attack on Pearl Harbor. These films are prepared by the Special Service Division, Army Service Forces, United States Army. To these will be added films on our enemies and our allies, and the best of existing information and education films. All this is in addition to the largest motion-picture entertainment circuit in the world, with an attendance of over 130,000,000 a year. The Special Service Division is sending to men overseas, via short wave, a total of 50 radio programs per week. These programs are replayed over long-wave stations in the majority of countries where American forces are stationed. While they are chiefly made for entertainment and recreation purposes, information on the progress of the war, and on the causes for which America is fighting, is also included.

In the spring of 1941, two civilian dramatic advisers were sent to Army camps by a civilian group to help in the development of self-entertainment by soldiers. This program was expanded until today approximately 30 Army officers are assigned full time to advise Army special service officers in this country and abroad. In music, much the same development may be reported with 30 officers selected from leading persons in the civilian musical world assigned to Army service commands and overseas areas to advise local officers on the development of music programs In addition, education officers have been appointed. Their duties are described elsewhere in this issue. These men are in addition to special service officers assigned on the basis of one to each regiment with enlisted

men as assistants, and three to each division commander's Staff. These special service officers have a general responsibility for the conduct of all education and recreation programs. The officers specially trained in education, dramatics, etc., help them in their work.

One month after Pearl Harbor the Army initiated an orientation course, the purpose of which was to instruct the men about the background and causes of the war and, by means of regular discussions led by their commanding officers or other appropriate officers, on the progress of the war. The films discussed above are a part of this program. While these weekly sessions are probably not in the usual sense discussion groups, and are undoubtedly held far less regularly than the founders of the course would like to think, they at least provide the information on which informal bull sessions can be based later.

The Army and the Navy had purchased with Government funds probably about 10,000,000 books by January 21, 1943, distributed in 2,000 Army libraries, and in libraries found in every naval station and on board ship. Trained professional librarians are made available by both services. Over a thousand USO clubs and Red Cross hospital centers are provided with books, largely from the Victory Book Campaign.

Lectures have been used by both departments since the beginning of the crisis, though to a limited degree. The War Department has restricted its lecture platform to men who have returned recently from active duty and can give eyewitness descriptions. Academic discussions have been found to have insufficient appeal to the men to warrant an elaborate program. These in-camp activities are supplemented by forums and lectures in the USO community recreation centers.

In April 1942, there was organized the Army Institute for correspondence study, now renamed the United States Armed Forces Institute, which provides instruction supplementary to normal

training to personnel of all the armed forces. A detailed discussion of this program and of the program of classwork in both the Army and the Navy can be found elsewhere in this issue.

II

It would appear from the statements above that these educators have profoundly influenced the philosophy of the War and Navy Departments. If you had suggested that idea to them a year ago they would have been astonished and a little angry, for they could see little result then of their work. Even today they could rightly say that the Army and Navy programs have just begun, and do not reach nearly enough men. The War and Navy Departments did not, in January 1941, welcome these proposals with open arms nor did they put them into action until in some cases over a year and a half had gone by.

This slow development was in the long run valuable and necessary for the creation of a sound and well-integrated off-duty education and recreation program for the armed forces In early 1941 the civilian public, and indeed many of the nonprofessional Army and Navy officers, were inadequately aware of the complications of modern war. They did not realize how short a time we had to build the kind of professional Army and Navy that could stand up against the human machinery which the Germans, the Japanese, and the Italians had been training for so many years But our top military and naval officers were determined to do as good a job of training as they could in the short time allotted to them and they were working under great pressure. Anything that appeared to conflict with the training program was looked upon with disfavor Today we all have reason to be grateful that this was the attitude of the War and Navy Departments in 1941

It was unfortunate, however, that this policy should obscure the fact that proper education and recreation programs were in themselves a military instrument that could speed rather than conflict

with military training. Yet it was not solely the fault of the military that this conception was slow to develop. The civilians urging such programs themselves did not adequately understand the problems of the military. The report referred to was presented primarily as a program that would make less unpleasant the bitter pill which the draftee had to swallow. Obviously this was not put in so many words, but the matter was argued on that basis during early 1941. In view of the restlessness of our men between January 1941 and the declaration of war on December 8, hindsight tells us that it might have been better to have had these programs in vigorous operation at the outset, rather than gradually introduce them after the declaration of war. But in the long run the way in which they have developed is sounder, for it has meant that they are being recognized by commanding officers to an ever increasing degree as an important aspect of their command—as a way of increasing training and combat efficiency. Had the commanding officers continued to think of them only as a palliative, I doubt whether it would be possible to report that, transportation permitting, radios, phonographs, books, motion pictures, and athletic equipment are as regularly issued to all units going overseas as food and tanks and ammunition. The commanding officer has been trained in these two years to relate more closely the soldiers' and the sailors' intellectual understanding of the causes for war with their fighting efficiency He is learning that the constructive use of leisure time in a wide variety of programs keeps the fighting man alert as well as content in his assignment of duty.

The problem which the Joint Army and Navy Committee faced when it was organized in early 1941 as an advisory and liaison committee was, therefore, not only to help the War and Navy Departments in their programs; it was quite as much to educate the civilians who wanted to help the departments in their huge expansion The Committee attempted to do this by setting up a group of educators who worked on and approved the report outlined at the beginning

of this article, it planned to keep these educators in close touch with the Army and Navy officers responsible for educational programs and to obtain from them, on a continuing basis, advice on setting up the administrative machinery to carry out programs, as well as obtaining from them advice on the programs themselves. In the same way the Committee set up advisory groups on athletics, music, social activities, radio, and religious activities. Such success as it may have had in keeping channels open through which civilian ideas could be brought to the War and Navy Departments, and tested by them, is due largely to the fact that these two departments, despite the pressure of their duties, were patient and open-minded. It is due also largely to the fact that the Committee had available the services of Dr Francis J Brown whose hard work and understanding of the problems involved greatly helped both Departments. Finally, the Committee has been able to use for experimental purposes a fund of $100,000 made available by the Carnegie Corporation of New York through a Committee of Trustees on Experimental Programs. Dr Brown, in a summary report presented February 2, 1943 (including figures to December 31, 1942), noted that 16 experimental programs in education were tried out, of which 13 could be described as successful, that $24,751.63 was allocated of which only $5,723.41 was spent before the programs themselves were taken over by the armed services for operation with Government funds. These programs varied from the drafting of a tentative educational manual to the installation of a carrier radio in a western camp. They have included the preparation of phonograph materials to teach foreign languages (27 languages or dialects have been prepared by the War and Navy Departments to provide an elementary knowledge to servicemen, and by the time this issue is printed there will be over a dozen languages or dialects for which phonograph records and other teaching materials have been prepared on a more advanced level)

The Subcommittee on Education, after the founding of the

Armed Forces Institute, was also asked to work on the preparation of self-teaching materials and testing materials, and to give consideration to the problems of educational credit for military experience, in anticipation of the time servicemen return to civilian life and civilian institutions. The Subcommittee set up three groups to work on these questions and after a trial period turned them over to the Army and Navy for continued operation. The Subcommittee's plans for educational credit have been embodied in a document published by the American Council on Education, *Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience.* These plans have been approved by the majority of regional associations of college and high-school administrators

Since the members of the parent Joint Army and Navy Committee include also representatives of USO and the Red Cross, it was more than natural that the Subcommittee on Education and its Executive Secretary, Dr. Brown, should have been related to the programs carried on by these agencies in the communities near the camps, though to a lesser degree. To some extent the same education materials used by the Army and Navy are used by these agencies. The USO, in continental United States, is visited by servicemen at the rate of approximately 12,000,000 times a month (many of these visits are repeats, of course). The USO report for November shows that in their more than 800 clubs there were 1,280 classes which met on an average of over four times a month with an attendance of 87,744. In addition, there were 1,704 clubs and 801 special interest groups with an attendance of 168,354

Motion pictures were shown 2,666 groups, with an attendance of 836,142. The USO has been constantly aware of the possibility of using tours of the vicinities near Army camps as an education experience for servicemen from other parts of the country. It was known that the time men have spent in areas far from their home State will be a lasting influence on their ideas about America Overseas the Red Cross has done much to introduce our men to the

foreign countries, as well as introduce the citizens of those countries to our men. The fact that the War and Navy Departments think it important enough to issue pamphlets to their men describing the country they are to visit is proof enough that this aspect of our soldier and sailor education is not forgotten or underrated

In view of the degree to which their original recommendations had been carried out by the end of 1942, the Joint Committee decided that the Subcommittee on Education, and all other subcommittees, should no longer be asked to come to Washington for meetings or conferences as often as they had, and on the first of January 1943 it relieved them of their responsibilities which had been, in many cases, costly to them in time and money. The members of the Education Subcommittee have, however, since that time been asked to help out as individuals with personnel recommendations and with specific problems in areas in which they are especially competent. There is every evidence that the Army and the Navy not only recognize the need of their experience, but also realize that the closest touch must be kept with civilian educational programs

III

The programs which have been described were obviously not easy to organize Hard and patient work was demanded of Army and Navy officers and in difficult times they had to rely upon a deep belief in the importance of their mission When men were sometimes fighting without adequate food or clothing, thousands of miles from the United States, it has not been easy to explain why it was essential to appoint an educational officer or to print a pamphlet or to make a film And now that much of the creative work has been begun, it is not easy to make these materials available all over the world, with the shortages of transportation and of personnel Obviously, it will be months before any considerable percentage of the men in the service are influenced by what has been

started in Washington. Reports which we all read in the newspapers about lack of recreation or education equipment overseas are to be expected, though not condoned. The important point is to remember that the greatest need for education, information, and recreation materials will be after the active fighting is over. The Joint Army and Navy Committee has tried to bear in mind that in a real sense the war will be won as much by the attitudes of the men when they return home as by the total surrender of the enemy. The program being carried on by the Army and the Navy and other coöperating agencies is now one of the weapons of war; then it will be the most important weapon for peace.

THE ARMY SPECIALIZED TRAINING PROGRAM

A BRIEF SURVEY OF THE ESSENTIAL FACTS
(Prepared after conferences with representatives of the Army Specialized Training Program)

The typical American campus is today being transformed into a production line vital to the nation's effort toward complete and final victory over an enemy several thousand miles across the waters. The Army Specialized Training Program is an important factor in that transformation. Its sole purpose is to provide a continuous and accelerated flow of technicians and specialists needed by the Army—men who can be developed more speedily and more efficiently in the colleges than in the camps or other military establishments. Under this program which has been developed with the full support and cooperation of all the educators who have assisted in the organization of the program, the Army is now negotiating contracts with colleges and universities for as full use of facilities as is necessary to attain the objective.

Here is how the program operates. Soldiers selected from the Army at large on a broad democratic basis, are sent to units stationed at colleges and universities for certain specialized training to meet needs of the armed forces. Selection of trainees for the program is based on their aptitudes, capabilities, and educational attainments as demonstrated under approved screening methods. Soldiers in academic training are soldiers on active duty, in uniform, under military discipline with regular Army pay and at no cost to themselves for college training. Some will enter at the basic (freshman) level, others at an advanced level. Qualified soldiers who have completed their basic military training will be routed to educational institutions for one or more twelve-week terms of prescribed training. At the end of each twelve-week term, a trainee may be recommended for continuation of his formal training. On the contrary, he may be assigned to other military duty or he may be recommended for assignment to an officer candidate school. At the present

juncture, efforts are being directed largely toward meeting the Army's needs in two major fields—engineering and medicine. Two other groups, relatively small, are of interest in the program. They are: personnel psychologists and specialists trained for duty as liaison officers in the lower echelons between our troops in foreign territories and the native population.

Any soldier may aspire to admission into the Army Specialized Training Program. His chances for acceptance will depend on his educational background, his capabilities, and his will to work. Save for a few exceptions, listed below, men must complete the thirteen weeks of basic military training before being brought into the program. Those exceptions are:

1. Medical, dental, and veterinary students pursuing approved courses.

2. Advanced course Reserve Officers' Training Corps students, members of the Enlisted Reserve Corps, who will be called to active duty upon the establishment of a unit of the Army Specialized Training Program in the college which they are attending. Students in this category will remain in the program only until the end of the first college term beginning in 1943.

Selection is made from two eligibility groups:

1 Soldiers under 22 years of age who meet the ASTD screening test and can demonstrate the required aptitudes at the basic (freshman) phase.

2. Soldiers, regardless of age, who have had at least one year of college work and show aptitudes requisite for studies at the advanced phase.

Five major testing devices are employed to determine selection of the trainees. They are:

1. *Physical Examination.* This is the routine Army medical examination administered at induction centers to decide physical eligibility of men to enter the armed forces.

2. *Army General Classification Test.* All persons inducted into

the Army are given the Army General Classification Test at reception centers Soldiers attaining a score of 110 or over are regarded as potential material and are eligible for the next screening device, the Army Specialized Training Division Test.

3. *Army Specialized Training Division Test.* This is known officially as ASTD Test OCT--2, X- 3 It is a specific measure of ability to perform Army specialized training work This is a new test, devised after consultation with the United States Office of Education. It is administered after the soldier has had nine of his 13 weeks' basic military training. If the soldier attains an acceptable score, a selection board will, after a personal interview, decide whether or not he should be assigned to Army specialized training At the completion of basic military training, he may be placed in training at a college, either at the basic or advanced level, according to his age and academic qualifications.

4. *Achievement Tests.* These tests are administered during or about the tenth week of each twelve-week term in the training program. These are standardized objective tests, built from current materials of instruction in accordance with normal peacetime procedures in colleges and universities. A trainee must in general demonstrate not only his aptitude for officer training but in addition must possess the special aptitudes necessary to fit him for the program curricula

5. *Leadership Tests* Subjective ratings will be made at regular intervals during basic military training and during the period of Army specialized training, with civilian instructors contributing to the rating information at the colleges. Trainees will be judged as "superior," "above average," or "below average" in leadership.

Thus, tests are administered at the following stages: (1) preinduction, (2) reception and replacement centers, and (3) during the program

The soldier screened out at any stage of the process suffers no resultant handicap in any other line of his future development in the Army unless it is clearly evident that such failure resulted from insufficient effort on the soldier's part. It is anticipated in fact that the great majority of the men brought into the program will move directly into officer candidate schools upon completion of their courses. The men screened out at earlier stages may be recommended for such schools. In less qualified cases they will be recommended for duty as technical noncommissioned officers, or as privates.

Army Specialized Training Division boards are being set up in camps, posts, or installations where authority exists for appointment of an officer candidate school (OCS) board. The Army Specialized Training Division boards have authority to recommend for the Army Specialized Training Program any enlisted man who meets the requirements. In some cases, the OCS board and the ASTD board will be comprised of the same personnel.

The screening boards operating at the various posts, camps, and stations to appraise material will function continuously. For, just as there is a continuous flow of selectees into the camps from all parts of the United States, so there must be an uninterrupted outflow into the colleges in order that the desired raw material will receive adequate training at the earliest opportunity.

When a soldier appears for examination, he will take not only the classification test given to all aspirants for officer candidate schools but also the Army Specialized Training Division Test. The board will then determine his disposition.

The number of trainees selected will depend on the facilities available in the colleges and universities and the requisitions of the various arms and services.

Trainees who qualify for instruction under the Army Specialized Training Program may state a preference for a particular college or university with which the Army has negotiated a contract.

There is no assurance, however, that the wish will be granted, since assignment to an institution will be dependent on a number of factors such as the Army's personnel requirements in relation to the institutions which are equipped and staffed to carry out the program Some colleges will be under contract solely for engineering courses, others under contract for premedical or medical work, or both, while still others will be selected to teach language and "foreign area" courses. It is entirely possible that some few institutions will embrace all fields of study under the program.

In the opinion of the advisory committee the curricula are at the college level; in some instances at the graduate level The committee held, moreover, that all courses are worthy of full college credit but deemed it advisable to leave the decision in such matters to the college authorities. In particular the committee had in mind the prospect of the trainees returning to college after the war to complete their education and to secure their degrees.

The courses are arranged for presentation in quarters of twelve weeks each, with a gap of one week between quarters That gap permits each college to make necessary changes and alterations. Also, it gives the hard-worked student a breathing spell, and it gives the ASTD staff an opportunity to improve coördination

It is a heavy work load which the ASTD trainee will carry in college. His work week will consist of:

24 hours of classroom work, including laboratory
24 hours of supervised study
5 hours of military instruction
6 hours of physical instruction

The workday will begin with reveille at 6.30 a.m. and will end with taps at 10 30 p.m. However, the trainee will have at least an hour of free time daily. Saturday afternoons, after 3 20, may be devoted to intramural sport contests, after which the trainee will be free until supper formation on Sunday. Such a schedule, fully

comparable to the work load required of a soldier in camp, obviously leaves no room for participation in intercollegiate athletics

Except for strictly military instruction and the supervision of physical training, the civilian personnel of the institution will be charged with responsibility for all the teaching required. As for military instruction, it must of necessity be general in nature The trainees will be brought to any given school as products of several different types of basic training. Their ultimate destination may, moreover, be any one of the many arms and services which make up the Army.

A joint Army-Navy-War Manpower Committee is charged with the responsibility of selecting colleges for the Army-Navy programs. Before actual negotiations are begun with any institution allocated to the Army a physical inspection of its facilities is made by Army representatives. At the same time, the wishes of the institutional authorities are ascertained. The contract, as finally negotiated, provides payment for the use of facilities, cost of instruction, subsistence of Army enlisted personnel, plant maintenance and operation, medical care and service, and restoration of facilities to normal condition upon expiration of the contract. The governing principle is the engagement of the facilities at cost.

One striking advantage offered by ASTP over any of the various plans of automatic deferment of college students proposed in recent months is a very substantial saving in the time needed to prepare a given candidate for his future duties as an officer. The picture is made clear by taking the case of a freshman student, now in college, pursuing a course in sanitary engineering To indicate the comparison the "processing" of this hypothetical freshman is considered:

1. Under a plan providing for his deferment and his continuing in college until he graduates

2. Under the Army Specialized Training Plan

The normal engineering course in peacetime totals twelve quarters—four years under peacetime conditions, three years under current wartime accelerated conditions. This hypothetical student is now completing his second quarter. Assuming, under plan 1 above, he is deferred until graduation, he would require ten quarters of college work and, after that, one quarter (or thirteen weeks) of basic military training and one quarter (or thirteen weeks) of officer candidate school—a total of twelve quarters or three years before he can become a commissioned officer in the Army. It will be noted that no time gaps or delays in his progress are included; in other words, the total elapsed time is the irreducible minimum under plan 1.

If, under plan 2, this hypothetical student is inducted into the service at the close of the present quarter, he will devote one quarter to basic military training, six quarters to Army specialized training, one quarter at officer candidate school—a total of eight quarters, or two years.

Thus, under the Army Specialized Training Plan, he will save four quarters, or one year. It is assumed that this student can qualify in either case for the advanced level. If enrolled in a course other than that of sanitary engineering, he will save even more. The saving in time indicated, at least four quarters or one year, is of too vital importance to be disregarded in a day when speed in training for leadership is essential toward expediting victory. The yardstick is not one of time alone. Essentially it is one of human lives—the lives of our soldiers. This saving may not be accurately calculable but it is inescapable and of importance transcending all other considerations.

In the above explanation, the curriculum longest in terms of time, that in sanitary engineering, has been chosen as a basis of comparison. The saving in time in this case is one year. In the case of the shortest curricula, those in civil and mechanical engineering, the saving in time amounts to six quarters, or eighteen months. In the

case of the curricula in chemical and electrical engineering, the saving is five quarters, or fifteen months.

It may be argued that the men trained under the Army Specialized Training Plan will not have their college degrees. Although this is not necessarily the case, the college degree is not significant in this situation. It is not the proper criterion of the men's ability to perform the Army duties for which they are needed. The Army Specialized Training Program curricula have been developed to provide within the shortest time possible and to the numbers required officer material possessing certain developed skills

It is this time pressure that is responsible for the basic distinction between the Army and the Navy programs, a distinction that has apparently mystified both the college authorities and the general public. The Navy is in the relatively comfortable position of building a backlog of officer material against the day when ships now under construction or in the blueprint stage are sent to sea. The Army by contrast must fill a long existing and ever widening gap between its needs and the immediate supply of skilled junior personnel. Both services draw from the same dwindling pool of human resources. As a result, it is self-evident that the Navy can accept the college courses and the trainee's rates of progress under such procedure with little modification. The participation of the Navy trainee in intercollegiate athletics and the maintenance of the trainee in college for a maximum of 32 months are cases in point. By contrast the Army is compelled to demand of its trainees the fullest possible contribution of his time and energy to the task in hand

POSTWAR EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR NAVAL PERSONNEL

LIEUTENANT COMMANDER RALPH A. SENTMAN, U. S. N. (RET.)

When it became necessary for Congress to dip into the manpower reserve of the teen ages to swell the armed forces, the fact became increasingly clear that the military establishment had accepted a huge educational responsibility.

This educational task was not only to provide the technical and mechanical training essential to modern warfare, but also to help officers and men continue the educations or careers that had been interrupted in order to render patriotic service. Particularly was this true of the reserve forces which so outnumbered the regular Navy.

As Navy recruits completed their fundamental training and were assigned to permanent stations on outlying or continental bases, or to Fleet stations on the battle line, the needs for a nonmilitary educational program became more explicit. Accordingly, Rear Admiral Randall Jacobs, Chief of Naval Personnel, assigned a group of officers to make a survey of possible "in-service" education that would be supplementary to the direct military task.

Three outlying bases where the need appeared greatest were selected for these surveys. Without disclosing confidential information, it may be reported that these studies revealed a number of characteristics common to each of these bases. The primary finding was that, despite long working days and extensive military duties, there existed an enthusiastic demand among both officers and men for off-duty instruction in nonmilitary subjects. This was due to a number of factors among which were:

1 Sufficient free time and the desire to use it for purposes of self-improvement

2. A desire to continue or complete school and college educations, interrupted by the necessity for military service

3. A desire to acquire skills and obtain information in subjects corollary to the job being performed in the Navy

4. A concern for the eventual return to civilian life

Factors contributing to the demand for nonmilitary instruction included: inability to get away from the base on leave (except by air or water which was virtually impossible except in emergency), a shortage of female companionship, infrequent mail delivery, lack of news from the United States, limited local resources especially those depending upon a grasp of foreign languages, and a serious shortage of war information about the progress of the war in other theaters of the globe.

The compilation of these needs pointed to the immediate necessity for a vigorous and far-reaching program of education. Experimental laboratories were set up in the autumn of 1942 and gradually, in answer to pleas from the Fleet and bases and stations, the program took shape. On January 1, 1943, a new Educational Services Section was created as part of the training division in the Bureau of Naval Personnel. The mission of the new section was organized broadly under four major activities:

1. Establishment of Educational Service Centers on outlying and continental bases under specially trained officer-supervisors

2. The gathering, editing, and distribution of war information

3. The creation of a language instruction program in over 25 languages and dialects of the world

4. The planning for the postwar reëntry of naval personnel into civilian life

Summarily speaking the mission of these four units was to offer men and women of the United States Navy an opportunity to study the things each desires and needs.

Such a nonmilitary education program fitted cleanly and smoothly into the Navy's general training program For the Navy believes that a man whose time is occupied in constructive study, in individual growth, and in intelligent use of leisure time is the man whose fighting efficiency is highest, who is eager to do a good job, and who is anxious to advance both his own and the Navy's welfare.

One of the best developed of these educational services is the curriculum of the United States Armed Forces Institute, established by the War and Navy Departments at the University of Wisconsin at Madison. Here, through the Navy registrar, naval personnel may enroll in some 70 courses at the high-school level and some 700 courses at the college level. A catalogue of these correspondence courses has been made available to all military personnel, including the Woman's Reserve, the Marine Corps, and the Coast Guard. Answers to questions from men overseas are handled by V-mail

By the end of January 1943, the report of the Institute revealed some interesting information. Over 80 per cent of those enrolled in courses had had less than two years of service, while the same percentage had been out of school for more than two years. Subjects most frequently selected were mathematics and business, followed closely by technical, engineering, and electrical subjects. Over 66 per cent of enrollees had received a high-school education or less, while all were under 30 years of age. Such a statistical picture indicates rather clearly the origin of the demand for nonmilitary education among young reservists who see in naval service an opportunity to develop skills and seek information of their own choosing

Another feature of these educational services is that of distributing timely and accurate war information. Mentioned elsewhere in this issue is the Army orientation course *Newsmap,* which is widely distributed to naval personnel and has filled an acute need for adequate information on the progress of the war. Published

weekly, the *Newsmap* is the central core for an entire orientation program which includes such problems as: What are our enemies like? What weapons have been most successful in World War II? Who are the United Nations? What is the geographical strategy of global warfare? What is happening in Guadalcanal, Tunisia, Russia, China, or Alaska?

A second phase of war-information activity is the widespread use of documentary and training films. Already the technicolor film *Battle of Midway*, the documentary films *Prelude to War* and *The Nazis Strike* have brought resounding cheers from news-starved men on lonely island bases, on shipboard, and in recruit or indoctrination centers. Also in considerable circulation are other films, less dramatic perhaps but equally valuable in bringing war news and world news to naval personnel

A third educational service provided by the program deals with educational postwar planning. It is most gratifying to know that many responsible Government agencies, including an over all conference composed of specialists, are making extensive studies and are drafting a tentative program to assist in the solution of problems of postwar readjustment.

The problems of peace are many. They involve the whole process of demobilization, of planning for the return of men and women from naval service to civilian jobs, or to the resumption of educational careers. They involve the guidance and counseling of these men and women *now* in order that a secure and effective transition to civilian life may be made later. They involve the conversion of Navy jobs and skills to peacetime positions and trades. And they involve the whole area of accreditation for war experience

Accreditation for military service is based upon the assumption that a man or woman who has passed through a period of naval service has acquired in due course certain skills, information, and attitudes that can be certified for him in such a way as to make the transition from military to civilian life easier and more harmonious

This "certification" or appraisal of war experience rests upon adequate testing devices. Already outstanding authorities in the evaluation field are preparing such tests designed to collate and appraise the total educational experience received during military service. This evaluation includes experience in the accomplishment of the "direct military task" as well as actual educational achievement of formal nature Appropriate records will be made available to schools and colleges and to prospective employers for whatever grading, placement, or hiring use they desire to make of them

The most immediately useful aspect of the various services, however, is the establishment of educational service centers on the bases and stations of the naval establishment itself. To these bases are constantly being sent a stream of carefully trained officer-supervisors. On the spot, these officers are charged with the teaching and administering of instruction in a wide variety of courses, requested by the men themselves.

The task of the officer-supervisor is to set up informal classes in these subjects, if numbers and time schedule permit, and to find competent teachers to give the courses. Usually the supervisor can himself take time out from administrative and record-keeping duties to teach one or more of such classes.

This officer is steward of off-duty education He guides and counsels officers and men in the selection of correspondence courses in the United States Armed Forces Institute, and through the Institute in selecting school or college courses. During long dark evenings in northern latitudes, the educational service center may be a "little red schoolhouse" where men are learning languages by linguaphone records, poring over mathematics problems, reading history, listening to discussions of the latest *Newsmap*, or studying technical magazines, pocket guides, or intelligence reports.

The service centers are the backbone of the whole program. They serve as schools, central clearing houses for war information, guidance clinics, and cultural and vocational counseling services. They

are the outposts: the answer to the widespread need for "in-service" nonmilitary education

The potential contribution of this broad program of wartime, nonmilitary education is an exciting prospect. It is the picture of American men moving to vital fronts of the United Nations, encountering differing cultures and values, learning new languages, studying the skills of war for their long term, as well as their wartime, importance and in so doing salvaging a strong and useful kernel of constructive "living" from the waste and horror of war. It is a picture that is extremely heartening to those who seek to peer into the future. For it reveals a down to earth determination of the Navy to expand and advance the principles of democracy, for which it is presently necessary to fight. These principles cluster about the central fact that it is the free individual, operating within his disciplines, upon which democracy rests His growth, his new experiences, his personal development along lines of his own choosing are the things for which the present fighting exists. That such freedom may exist in the future, as well as in the present, the nonmilitary education program of the Navy has been created.

THE NAVAL OFFICER TRAINING PROGRAM

LIEUTENANT COMMANDER W. K. THOMPSON, U. S. N. R.

During the years of peace following the last war and until 1940, the process of preliminary training of officers for the Navy consisted primarily of sending young men through four years as midshipmen at the Naval Academy. Supplementing these "regulars" were the graduates of the Naval Reserve Officers Training Corps training courses conducted at various colleges, as well as a number of other reserves who attended weekly drills and had occasional practice exercises. The air arm of the Navy was officered by Naval Academy graduates, who had received flight training after two years or more at sea, and by reserve aviators trained as aviation cadets at Pensacola.

"Staff Corps" officers, such as supply officers, constructors, civil engineers, doctors, dentists, and chaplains, were partly civilian trained and partly Navy trained in specialty schools.

The regular "line" officer was trained with the idea that he should be able to handle efficiently any job on board ship. For example, an officer assigned to duty as navigator of a ship, after completing such duty, might suddenly be ordered to duty as an engineering officer of another ship. Throughout those peace years, each ensign recently graduated from the Academy was placed in a probationary status and successively assigned to short periods of duty in every department of his ship. During these periods he was required to learn as much as possible about each department. He was required to keep a navigation notebook, serve in various gunnery divisions, make sketches of the machinery and piping, and in general absorb as much all-around practical knowledge as possible. He served as a junior watch officer for about a year before being considered a qualified deck watch stander, and about three months before qualifying as engineer officer of the watch.

The foregoing represents only a fraction of the training that naval

officers received. The over-all education was extensive and thorough. The standards were extremely rigid, the competition keen, and the attrition very large.

When it became increasingly apparent that our security was being threatened, a program of naval expansion was undertaken. Keels were laid and men had to be trained to man the new fleets.

Since the Naval Academy and NROTC units were not able to produce officers rapidly enough or in sufficient numbers to meet this expansion, supplementary sources were required. Many retired officers and other officers who had left the service for various reasons were recalled to active duty (many voluntarily), but there were still far from enough. Larger numbers of young officers had to be found and trained in a minimum length of time.

In 1940, the "V-7" program for reserve midshipmen was begun Qualified men with college backgrounds were sent, after one month of duty at sea as apprentice seamen, to one of the three Naval Reserve Midshipmen's Schools (Northwestern, New York, and later Notre Dame) for an accelerated course of training. Later on, the one month of indoctrination prior to the change of status of the apprentice seamen to midshipmen was given ashore because of the urgent need of all ships for other purposes. The course for midshipmen consists of three months of intensive training in essential subjects. Midshipmen who are to become ensigns for "deck" duties are taught the elements of navigation, ordnance and gunnery, seamanship, and communications, and a limited amount of damage control. Engineers are taught basic marine engineering, including boilers, steam engines, internal combustion engines, auxiliaries, electricity, and damage control, as well as a little "deck" lore. Practical drills and laboratory work supplement the teaching Short cruises in auxiliary or patrol craft as well as trips to Navy yards and planetariums help to round out this primary training. Upon graduation, these men become reserve ensigns.

Some of the graduates of these midshipmen's schools are sent

directly to sea and others go to specialty schools for advanced instruction in subjects such as communications, radio, Diesel engineering, antisubmarine warfare, and amphibious warfare

Another source of officer material is by way of commissioning officer specialists direct from civil life and sending them through short courses of training and indoctrination at various schools. Some are sent to sea and others are retained at the various shore establishments in capacities as nearly comparable to their particular fields as possible.

Officers procured and commissioned direct from civil life who are destined for sea duty attend indoctrination schools for approximately two months. This period is designed as one of transition in which civilians learn naval history, customs, usages, drill, and discipline, along with a certain amount of basic technical knowledge, thus equipping them with sufficient background for further training. After leaving indoctrination schools, these officers are then ordered to such schools as Armed Guard Centers, Local Defense, Communications, Harbor Defense, Mine Warfare, Amphibious, Recognition, Radio Material, and Engineering, for further intensive training before being ordered to active operational duty afloat.

Those officers of the category described in the paragraph above, but who are not to be ordered to sea, undergo similar indoctrination and then are ordered to duty at shore stations either directly, or, in certain cases, via specialty schools among which are technical schools relating to ordnance, engineering, and aviation In this category also are instructors, administrators, civil engineers, transportation experts, lawyers, and in fact members of practically every profession and art known in civil life.

Of course, many officers are procured from the ranks of regular and reserve enlisted personnel, many of whom are sent to various schools such as those previously mentioned

About July 1, 1943, the new Navy College Program (V-12) will go into effect in order to maintain a flow of men through colleges

compatible with selective service. Its purpose is to provide suitably educated college men for further training in reserve midshipmen's schools and specialty schools. A large number of colleges and universities are being selected for this work by the Joint Army, Navy, and WMC Board. Some of the students, who are now in college or are high-school graduates, will be classified as basic, engineering, pre-medical, pre dental, medical, or dental. They will be enlisted as apprentice seamen, V-12, and receive quarters, subsistence, tuition, books, and medical care as well as pay. These men will be under military control and receive a certain amount of drill, indoctrination, and physical instruction along with selected academic work. The curricula for the six classifications will be standard. The NROTC units will continue to function approximately as before.

The indoctrination and training of officers for the women's reserve, popularly known as the WAVES, follows a pattern somewhat similar (except for curriculum) to that of the V-7, or reserve midshipmen's program. Officer candidates are enlisted in class V-9 and sworn in as apprentice seamen. They are given a four or five weeks' indoctrination course at Smith College or Mount Holyoke College. Upon successful conclusion of the course, those who have had previous experience in administrative or technical fields are indoctrinated for a second month, after which they receive their commissions and are ordered to duty at various shore stations. The remainder are trained in communications for seven weeks and are then commissioned and ordered to appropriate duty ashore.

Women candidates for appointment as acting assistant surgeons are appointed with probationary commissions (W-V[P]) and are given an indoctrination course at the Naval Medical School, Bethesda, Maryland.

A comparison of the present training of officers with that prior to 1940 brings out a number of facts, some of which are:

1. There are now many times more reserves than regular officers in the Navy

2. Limited time and tremendous technical advances have forced the Navy to abandon its traditional all-around training for many of its reserves and have made specialized training necessary.

3. The former thorough training of regular officers has formed a sound nucleus of key officers around which reserve officers of limited training may be added to form an efficient combat team.

Many changes have been and are being made in the sizes and numbers of schools, curricula, methods of instruction, degree of specialization, and new training fields to keep pace with rapid technical developments and the ever changing technique of modern sea warfare. Training aids of various types are playing a more and more important role in improving the efficiency of instruction. These consist for the most part of models, motion pictures, records, and "gadgets."

Finally, there are two underlying sides to the officer program. One side is concerned with the immediate need to fill present and near-future billets as soon as possible, while the other is a long-range plan designed to maintain a flow of well-trained officers over a sufficient period of time in order to assure adequate officer personnel to man the largest fleet ever to be built. The colleges and universities of the country have played, and will play even more as time goes on, a vital part in the officer training program. They will share with the Navy in the eventual success of the goals yet to be achieved.

FIFTEEN MONTHS OF NEGOTIATIONS[1]

GEORGE F. ZOOK
President, American Council on Education

The American Council on Education was founded in 1918, during World War I, as an attempt to federate the interests of American education at all levels, particularly the institutions of higher education in their relations with the Federal Government. Its membership is composed of representatives from national and regional educational associations, about 100 in number, and representatives from 563 colleges, universities, and school systems; a total of approximately 660 institutions and organizations. Among these are such associations as the Association of American Universities, the Association of American Colleges, the National Catholic Educational Association, the American Association of Teachers Colleges, and every type of college and university, both large and small. The Council, therefore, is a thoroughly comprehensive body in American education, particularly in the field of higher education.

In view of the comprehensive character of its membership the Council has been active from the outbreak of the war, and particularly since the United States entered the conflict, in studying the implications of the war on American higher education and in offering the services of the institutions toward the all-important matter of winning the war.

This function of the Council was recognized at a large conference of representatives from all types of higher institutions held at Baltimore, July 15-16, 1942, in the following resolution:

> We recommend that the American Council on Education which was established during the first World War to represent all the organizations of higher education, be recognized as the appropriate nongovernmental

[1] Adapted from statement before the House Military Affairs Committee, February 16, 1943, pages 175–185.

agency . . . to serve in a continuous capacity for facilitating cooperation between higher education and government.

The Council has repeatedly urged the development of a comprehensive, coördinated plan for the use of the universities and colleges, based on the needs of the country for trained personnel in military and essential civilian services.

The executive committee of the Council, only a few days following the entrance of the United States into the war, passed a strong resolution recommending that:

> The manpower requirement of the total war program, both military and civilian, be officially computed by general categories to form a national manpower budget . . . and that the educational programs . . . be revised during the war emergency to meet the skill requirements of the Nation as thus set forth.

This resolution was delivered to Paul V. McNutt, Administrator of the Federal Security Agency, and at that time chairman of a Cabinet committee to consider matters of this sort.

Later, on January 4, 1942, in Baltimore, at the largest meeting of college and university executives ever assembled in this country, it was recommended (a) that the institutions of higher education cooperate to the fullest extent with Federal manpower and woman power for the essential branches of national service—military, industrial, and civilian; (b) determine the available facilities of colleges and universities to prepare students to meet these needs; and (c) appraise the ultimate needs in professional personnel for long-term conflict and for the postwar period, in order that a continuous and adequate supply of men and women trained in technical and professional skills and in leadership to meet both immediate and long-range needs shall be maintained.

Ultimately, as you know, the Manpower Commission was set up by Executive Order on April 18, 1942. The Council and the

institutions of higher education were immensely pleased that at last there seemed to be a way by which all the manpower needs of the country, including both military and civilian, could be estimated on a comprehensive basis and plans made accordingly including the training of men and women in college for the war effort.

Three months went by and there was no estimate of needs for trained specialized personnel nor any plan for the most effective use of the colleges. Finally, at a second meeting of college executives, called by the Council at Baltimore, in July 1942, the following resolution was passed:

> We deplore the continuing lack of any adequate coordinated plan for the most effective utilization of higher education toward the winning of the war, and we urge the establishment of such a coordinated plan at the earliest possible moment.
>
> The government is not utilizing the institutions of higher education to capacity and is, therefore, impeding the flow of highly trained manpower essential to victory in a long war.

In the meantime the Council attempted to provide for the Federal Government through the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel detailed information concerning the supply of professionally trained personnel which the institutions of higher education could provide during the period from February 1942 to January 1943. This information was broken down into 104 categories in such fields as management, agriculture, biology, medicine, engineering, physical sciences, social sciences, arts, and languages This survey provided dependable information on the supply of specialized and professional personnel then in training in the colleges and universities. What was still lacking as the basis of a comprehensive plan were estimates of need for persons in these several categories.

Then came the exceedingly important pronouncement of the War Manpower Commission August 19, 1942, as follows:

> All able-bodied male students are destined for the armed forces The re-

sponsibility for determining the specific training for such students is a function of the Army and the Navy.

For those students, men and women, who are not to serve in the armed forces there should be developed through the War Manpower Commission plans of guidance which will help the students where they can make the most effective contribution to the war effort, including essential supporting activities. The War Manpower Commission should also make plans for the instruction of those for whom further training is necessary to enable them according to their qualifications to make their most needed contributions to the support of the armed forces

These resolutions did not include a plan for the effective utilization of manpower, but there was the basis for plans to be developed by the military services and by the War Manpower Commission, respectively. It was at least the first step in eliminating the uncertainty that had been hanging over the colleges since the outbreak of the war 8 months earlier.

The Council, therefore, immediately turned to the military departments to see what might be their plans for training and for the use of the colleges and universities. These relationships were in fact developed at the request of the Joint Army and Navy Personnel Board through a special committee of which President Edmund E. Day, of Cornell University, has served as chairman.

The committee contains representatives of all types of higher institutions, both large and small—universities, colleges of liberal arts, teachers colleges, engineering colleges, and junior colleges.

Early in September the Council received information regarding the tentative plans of the War Department, looking toward the reorganization of its Reserve Corps in the colleges and its proposed training program. There were aspects of this program that the Council's committee considered to be unwise or inexpedient. After full discussion of the situation with representatives of the War Department, the Council committee on September 23 unanimously approved a counterplan for the use of the colleges and universities,

which was immediately proposed to the War and Navy Departments. This plan, as amended on October 14, 1942, is as follows:

PROPOSED PLAN FOR ENLISTED TRAINING CORPS

The Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government, appointed by the American Council on Education, respectfully proposes for immediate consideration by the War Department and the Navy Department a plan for the present war emergency which has as its objectives. (1) to utilize American institutions of higher education more extensively as centers for training highly qualified young men as prospective specialists and officers in the armed forces; and (2) to do so on the broad democratic basis of selecting young men for such training irrespective of their economic status. The Committee believes that universities and colleges can effectively provide basic and specialized courses of essential military value; that certain elements of the training provided at West Point and Annapolis can in some degree and on a broad front be supplied by higher educational institutions throughout the country by using their great resources in plant, personnel, equipment, and good will.

Toward these objectives the Committee recommends establishment of Enlisted Training Corps in the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard, to be located at approved institutions of higher education, with a general structure as follows:

1. The respective corps shall be open to all male graduates of high schools and other males of equivalent education over 17 years of age, who meet competitive standards, up to quotas to be established by the respective armed forces. Selection of candidates for enlistment in the corps and for any retention for further training shall be made by the appropriate military authorities in cooperation with the institutions.

It is recommended that this cooperation be established through special boards made up of Army and Navy officers and civilian members, subject to the regulations established by a Joint Army-Navy-Civilian National Board. The National Board shall have authority to establish quotas for the colleges and universities.

2. Enlisted candidates may apply to any university, college, or junior college which will require such candidates to undergo specialized and general officer training of a standard approved by the military authorities. These candidates shall be enrolled in the Enlisted Training Corps as soon

after graduation from high school as possible and will be enrolled in institutions of higher education at the opening of the next term or quarter. Provision shall be made within the Corps for as large a number of institutions as is possible without impeding or impairing the effectiveness of the training program In institutions not having an ROTC unit, officers in charge shall be drawn from the faculties of the institutions wherever possible.

It is further recommended that acceptance by the college, university, or junior college of students enrolled in the Corps by the Board shall depend upon the admission procedures of that institution within its quota.

3. Enlisted candidates shall pursue year-round curricula, extending four semesters or the equivalent in length, agreed upon by the proper military and institutional authorities. Upon completion of this basic training, they may be assigned for further professional or specialized training on passing suitable tests. Also members of the armed forces may be transferred to Enlisted Training Corps on passing similar tests.

4. Enlisted candidates shall receive base pay and subsistence while attending colleges and universities as members of the Corps

This is a very brief summary of what the Council, in effect, proposed as a counterplan. The plan was immediately communicated to all the institutions of higher education. By letter ballot they expressed themselves overwhelmingly as in favor of the plan

Furthermore, such important organizations as the Association of American Colleges, and the National Association of State Universities, which chanced to have annual meetings during this period of negotiation, expressed themselves as cordially supporting the Council's plan.

Despite frequent statements that colleges and universities could not agree on an effective plan for war service, the record clearly demonstrates that there was substantial agreement among the institutions

In the course of the negotiations with the representatives of the War Department, the committee repeatedly urged the necessity for using as many institutions as possible in the training program of the military services.

Ultimately the plans of the War and Navy Departments for the utilization of college facilities in special training programs were announced on December 12, 1942, several months after these negotiations began. The full text of the announcement was communicated immediately by the Council to all the universities and colleges of the country. They are described earlier in this JOURNAL.

As had been anticipated, the plans of the Navy Department were found to be substantially in agreement with the Council plan in most respects. In the case of the War Department the situation was different in part no doubt due to the respective requirements of the two military services, on which, of course, we are not entirely competent, by any means, to pass judgment.

There are several fundamental differences between the Council plan and those finally announced by the War and Navy Departments on December 12:

1. Inasmuch as the War Manpower Commission had stated categorically on August 19, 1942, that all able-bodied male students were destined for the armed forces, it seemed to follow that in so far as the services of able-bodied male students were required in essential civilian services it would be necessary for such men to be trained by the Army and Navy programs and later detailed for civilian services. It was evident from the moment the announcement was made, however, that very little attention was to be given either by the Army or the Navy to the needs of industry and other essential civilian services for trained personnel, in spite of the fact that the Secretary of the War Department had publicly stated on September 17, 1942, that—

> The Army is greatly in need of men of specialized training, particularly in physics, chemistry, engineering, and medicine. We are equally interested . . . in having adequate numbers of men of such training available to war-production industries and the civilian research agencies of the Government.

2. Secondly, the Council expressed the hope that the program of

the two departments might be jointly administered so as to bring about the utmost cooperation in the two programs, especially in the selection of the men to enter the programs. On this point, the Council committee recommended that the men be allowed to enter these programs at 17 years of age. In the situation that confronts the Navy, that is entirely possible. In the situation that confronts the Army, that has not been considered possible.

So it was recommended that there be the utmost coöperation established through the special boards made up of Army and Navy officers and civilian members, subject to the regulations established by a joint Army-Navy-civilian board. We expressed the hope many, many times that this program should be a joint affair, not only between the Army and Navy on the one hand, but a program that could also be carried on coöperatively with representatives of the institutions of higher education. These hopes have not been realized.

In other words, it was the contention of the Council that in view of the specialized character of the training for the Army, there is a serious question as to whether the induction of the men should be delayed until they are 18 years of age; and, secondly, whether they should then be sent to camp for 13 weeks of basic military training.

3 The third distinction can best be pointed out by the following letter to the Secretary of War, November 23, 1942, making a final appeal, among other matters, and raising the question as to whether the military situation was so serious as to require the specific timing for the calling of the men in the Army and Reserve Corps:

> The Army proposes to withdraw from college campuses, by February 1, the great majority of the students, now in the Reserve Officers' Training Corps and the Enlisted Reserve Corps. Such action, together with the withdrawals of 18- and 19-year-olds by the Selective Service System, will have these damaging effects upon the War Department's own training

program (1) Student bodies will be seriously depleted of large numbers of men already engaged in training which the Army needs; (2) the removal of students from colleges at unpredictable times during the next semester —and the volunteering for Army and Navy service thereby induced —will disrupt the special training programs now in operation; (3) teaching staffs will be scattered and will be reassembled later, if at all, with great difficulty, and (4) the operations of colleges and universities will be so seriously weakened that they will be unable subsequently to serve effectively the needs of the Army. These inevitable consequences of the proposed War Department plans would be so injurious that, in the interests of military efficiency, we urge that a new and more satisfactory timetable be substituted for that now proposed

Shortly thereafter the War Department plan was modified somewhat. Certain additional engineering students and certain other students, where the semester or term began after January 1, 1943, were allowed to remain in college to the end of the current academic year. These actions reduced the effect on the universities and colleges somewhat.

Many of the institutions, particularly the colleges of liberal arts, are now losing their students who enrolled in the Armed Reserve Corps. At the same time those students who did not enroll in the Reserve Corps are also, as pointed out by the Council, being rapidly drawn out of the colleges through the normal application of selective service. I need not tell you that to have this happen in the midst of an academic year, when budgets have already been made and financial commitments to individual faculty members made for the entire year, places an exceedingly heavy burden on many if not most institutions which the American Council and its member institutions believe might very well have been avoided by better planning. Colleges and universities are willing to make any sacrifice but it appears at least inconsistent for the Army to acknowledge its need for college-trained men by sending 100,000 or more to college at Army expense and at the same time withdrawing from training men now in college.

This may partly be indicated by the fact that members of the Navy Collegiate Reserve Corps are remaining in college to the end of the current academic year and will be located in selected institutions thereafter until the completion of their training. It is regrettable that the Army did not find it expedient and desirable to follow a similar plan.

Nevertheless, the Council has continued to coöperate with the War Department in every way possible, particularly in suggesting numerous panels of persons who are competent to advise as to the character and content of courses in the various subject-matter fields. Colonel Herman Beukema, who is in charge of the program, has used these panels, composed of representatives from all types of institutions, both large and small, extensively in the development of the War Department's program of specialized training.

I want to complete my statement by mentioning once more the situation with respect to essential civilian services. I have already stated that the Council has been deeply concerned from the very beginning in urging the Federal Government to develop a comprehensive plan for the training of all persons needed for the military services and for essential civilian services. In its memorandum to the War and Navy Departments, October 27, 1942, the Council committee urged the adoption of a plan which—

> . . . should consider not only the needs of the Army and Navy for specialized personnel and for the training of officers but also the needs of industry for professional-technical personnel, both now and in the future, if the war continues for many years.

In the opinion of the committee, it is gambling on a short war not to take these considerations into account in planning the total training program

> We feel that a thorough critical analysis of the manpower situation in regard to professional-technical personnel is urgently required as the first step. If, as a result of this analysis, it is shown that there are a number of professional and technical men now employed in nonessential work, who

can be moved to other fields, a plan for accomplishing this should be developed. If, as many believe, it is clear that there is an actual shortage of manpower in certain fields, essential from the point of view of total war, then the necessity for an over all training program becomes manifest.

As soon as it became evident that the War and Navy Departments did not intend to include any considerable numbers of persons in their respective training programs to fill the needs of essential civilian services, including industry, the Council turned to the War Manpower Commission for a solution of the problem which by this time had become acute in certain professional and technical fields, notably physics. In this case certain special provisions for the deferment of men in training for this field of work have recently been worked out through the selective service system. Also because of the lowering of the draft age to 18, students who can complete their training prior to July 1, 1945, in engineering, and certain other critical fields of training, have been made eligible for deferment from military service. It is obvious, however, that no real solution of the problem of training men for essential civilian services has yet been found by the War Manpower Commission.

In a memorandum to the War Manpower Commission dated November 19, 1942, the Council's committee laid down the basic considerations leading up to the formulation and adoption of such a plan.

The War Manpower Commission is vested with the responsibility for procuring and maintaining data on the need and actual and potential supply of manpower in the United States. Consequently, the following recommendation is addressed to the Commission, with the request that immediate steps be taken to carry out the proposed studies:

1. That through cooperation with the armed forces, with other agencies of government, and with professional associations and organizations, all information now available through such agencies be brought together, coördinated in so far as they are comparable and a general estimate be

made immediately of the present and future shortages in each of the potentially necessary specialized and professional fields. . . .

2. That pilot studies be made in selected industries to determine (a) present shortages in each field; (b) potential shortage at each of several stated dates such as June 1943, January 1944; and (c) potential supply through upgrading within the industry, transfer of individuals to war production, and employment of women . .

3. That similar pilot studies be made in selected communities to determine present shortages and potential supply in each of the specialized and professional fields. It is proposed that a limited number of communities be selected to represent a general cross section of community life (single industry communities should not be included). A group of persons, varying in number in relation to the size of the community, should be assigned to each community for a period of approximately two weeks. Through personal interviews with representative individuals and an analysis of such data as are available in local government and professional organization offices, information should be procured especially with reference to the professional needs such as medical and dental care, teaching, and engineering.

To procure these data will entail (1) the allocation of the responsibility for making the study to a single governmental agency; (b) coöperation of other government agencies, of industry, and of professional organizations; and (c) the appointment of a field staff to make the personnel inventory both for industry and in the selected communities.

In spite of the recognized difficulties in carrying on such studies and making such estimates, it is absolutely necessary that it be done because in this area the securing of necessary personnel involved in most instances from one to five years of training. It is, therefore, necessary to plan in advance. But planning in advance involves carefully worked out estimates of needs for specialized and professional personnel which, except to a limited extent, the War Manpower Commission has not undertaken up to this time.

One example of the need for civilian workers is teaching. It is

estimated that in the fall of 1942 more than 100,000 teachers left the profession to go into other lines of work, including industry and military service, or one out of every ten of the nation's teachers. The exodus is continuing. Seventy-five per cent of the school systems of the country have been compelled to employ emergency teachers, which generally means substandard teachers. Naturally the shortages are greatest in the rural areas because there the salary scales are generally lower than in the cities. In the meantime, the supply of prospective teachers in training in the colleges has fallen off tremendously. In the teachers colleges, for example, the enrollment was lower in 1941, as compared to the previous year, by 15 per cent. By the fall of 1942 it was nearly 25 per cent lower than it was in 1940. Yet all will agree that the education of our children is a critical civilian need which is already in a serious condition.

On December 16, 1942, in a letter to Dr E. C. Elliott of the War Manpower Commission, the Council committee went further in outlining the general character of a War Manpower Reserve Corps as follows:

(a) Provide two accelerated semesters of preprofessional training for approximately the upper two fifths of all high school graduates during which period screening tests could be administered and counselling procedures employed for the selection of those young men and women who, in terms of the most efficient use of manpower, should be assigned to the armed forces, to industry, and to other essential civilian activities.

(b) Establish procedures for the deferment of all male members of the corps until the completion of this two-semester period of training and personal assessment. Such deferment, may we point out, would be for an average period of 3 or 4 months only since the average age of the gifted youth to be inducted into the corps (e.g., the upper two fifths of high school graduating classes) is nearer 17 than 18 years.

(c) Arrange for further training of those young men and women who are qualified for such training and who are needed in the nonmilitary aspects of the war effort. The young men to be given such further training would be chosen, of course, with the needs of both the armed forces and of wartime civilian activities in mind. A method for determining

both the military and the nonmilitary needs of the Nation could be developed, we assume and believe, by the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission in consultation with the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy.

(d) Provide financial assistance on an equitable democratic basis, later to be determined, so that economic barriers would not stand in the way of the training of those best qualified for such training.

May I summarize briefly? The American Council on Education has repeatedly urged upon various divisions of the Government the necessity of a comprehensive plan for the training of personnel needed in the military and essential civilian services. It has itself formulated and urged upon the military authorities a plan that provided for a uniform method of selecting men to be in training in the Army and Navy specialized training programs upon a thoroughly democratic basis. It has urged the Army and Navy to include in its estimates a safe margin of men who might, upon the completion of their training in engineering, medicine, dentistry, and so forth, be assigned upon the basis of demonstrated need to essential civilian services. Finally, it has urged the War Manpower Commission repeatedly to make estimates of specialized and professional personnel needed in essential civilian services as the basis of any further plans that it may develop for the training of civilian workers in the universities and colleges.

The above statement in no way includes a complete description of the war service activities of the Council, as it was prepared only with respect to the Council's relationship to the Army Specialized and Navy Collegiate Training Programs. Any comprehensive summary would include the continuing conferences held by individual members of the Council's staff with representatives of many Government agencies, the cooperation with the Joint Army-Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation through Dr. Francis J. Brown, Educational Adviser of the Committee on the Council staff; the constant liaison maintained with colleges and universities through

the three publications: *Higher Education and National Defense*, *War Service Opportunities*, and the *Educational Record*, as well as published books and pamphlets, assistance in the preparation of tests and college forms for use by the armed forces; studies of teacher education in relation to the new problems created by war; surveys of specific fields in higher education directly affected by the war; and through close cooperation with the Special Service Division of the Army, the Training Division of the Navy, and the United States Armed Forces Institute the development of proposals for the granting of credit for the educational value of military experience. The Council is now joining with both Government and other educational agencies in considering problems of the postwar period and the part colleges and universities must play in meeting the needs of the aftermath of war

Organized during World War I, the American Council on Education has sought to meet the new and more complex educational problems of World War II

UNIVERSITY OF THE ARMED FORCES

MAJOR SPENCER D BENBOW

Acting Executive Officer, Education Branch,
Special Service Division, A.S.F.
War Department

That is not the official name—the official title is *Armed Forces Institute*—but University of the Armed Forces describes it better. It was founded three weeks after Pearl Harbor to help make better fighting men out of civilians and to help civilians in uniform prepare for a return to peacetime pursuits. It offers instruction on the secondary and college levels. Accreditation is assured. Its campus is world-wide. It has 2,000 libraries and 10,000,000 books. Its students are men—and women—in khaki, blue, and forest green, located in the United States, Iceland, Australia, North Africa, Alaska, and everywhere Americans are fighting. It commands some of the best teaching talent in the United States. It is operated by the War and Navy Departments. Its slogan is "What Would You Like To Learn?" Its seal is a torch and an open book resting on crossed swords.

That is a thumbnail sketch of one of the most interesting developments in the history of education. The complete story is given in the following excerpts and digests taken from War Department directives, news releases, reports, and publications—with editorial notes.

I. THE EDUCATION BRANCH OF THE WAR DEPARTMENT

To provide for off-duty education in our present-day civilian Army, the War Department created an Education Branch in the Special Service Division of the Army Service Forces. Colonel Francis T. Spaulding, on leave from his civilian position as Dean of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, is chief of the Education Branch

The duties and responsibilities of Colonel Spaulding and his staff of Army educators are summarized in the organization manual of the Army Service Forces:

> The Education Branch consists of the Correspondence Study Section, the Group Instruction Section, and the Library Section
>
> a) The Correspondence Study Section formulates policies for and supervises the conduct of the United States Armed Forces Institute operating under the provisions of AR 350-3100, prepares and provides self teaching instructional materials; prepares and provides examinations for evaluation, and certification to educational institutions, of the educational experiences of military personnel, arranges for accreditation of military educational experiences by civilian educational institutions; supervises college and university extension courses provided for United States Armed Forces Institute enrollees; analyzes enrollments; and provides educational guidance.
>
> b) The Group Instruction Section prepares plans for the organization of classes and groups; arranges for the provision of educational facilities by educational institutions; selects and supplies educational motion pictures; provides foreign language recordings and glossaries, assists in development of educational programs through education officers assigned to Service Commands and overseas forces on request of Commanders
>
> c) The Library Section makes recommendations concerning the physical needs of the Army Library Service, formulates policies for and generally supervises the establishment, operation, and maintenance of Army libraries; makes recommendations for the purchase of books and magazines for overseas forces, hospitals, transports, and traveling libraries; supervises the distribution of books donated to the Army.

That is the "military mission" of the Education Branch of the War Department. The projects and activities undertaken to accomplish this mission are described in the remainder of this article

2. THE UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES INSTITUTE

a) *Authorization and Designation*

Approximately three weeks after Pearl Harbor, December 24, 1941, the War Department authorized the establishment of a cor-

respondence school to be known as the Army Institute (now the United States Armed Forces Institute). Lieutenant Colonel William R. Young, formerly Supervisor of Correspondence Study, State College of Pennsylvania, is Commandant of the Institute.

1. *Authorization and designation.* There will be at such place or places as may be prescribed by the Secretary of War a correspondence school which will be known as the Army Institute.

2. *Objectives.* The objectives of the Army Institute are to:

a) Provide personnel of the Army . . an opportunity to undertake a formal course of study. .

b) Provide educational opportunities to meet the requirements of the command

c) Furnish assistance to personnel of the Army who lack educational prerequisites for assignment to duty which they are otherwise qualified to perform and to meet the requirement for promotion.

d) Enable those whose education is interrupted by military service to maintain relations with educational institutions and thus increase the probability of the completion of their education upon their return to civil life.

e) Improve the value of Army personnel as citizens upon return to civil life.

b) *Establishment*

Institute headquarters were established at Madison, Wisconsin, the home of the University of Wisconsin. Two plans of correspondence study were provided (War Department Circular 232):

1. *Correspondence Study under Army Institute.* Enlisted personnel who have been in active service for not less than 4 months may enroll for the Army Institute correspondence courses . upon payment of an enrollment fee of $2.00 for each course

2. *Correspondence Study under University or College Extension Division* (*a*) Cost of text and tuition The Government will pay half the cost of text and tuition fee (not to exceed $20.00 for any one course) for enlisted personnel who have been in active service for not less than 4 months, who enroll in approved correspondence courses for academic credit under the extension divisions of the cooperating institutions.

Under plan 1, sixty four courses of high school and junior college level are offered directly by the Institute. Lesson service is provided under contract by the Extension Division of the University of Wisconsin.

Under plan 2, approximately 500 university and high school credit courses are offered by the more than seventy-five cooperating institutions. Nearly every major field of study is represented in the 500 courses. Each college or university is under contract with the Government.

c) *Navy Department Participation*

Shortly after the establishment of the Institute by the War Department, the Secretary of the Navy wrote to the Secretary of War

> Information made available to the Navy Department indicates that the Army has established definite voluntary programs of education for certain members of the armed forces who aspire to better equip themselves, not only for the war effort, but to prepare them for post-war placement. The Army Institute, special conversational instruction in foreign languages, and certain orientation courses are some few of the subjects in question.
>
> In order to avoid duplication and to provide the most effective services to the men and women of the armed forces, it would be very much appreciated if an opportunity were offered the Navy to make use of these facilities already established by the Army.

After negotiations, the War Department replied.

> . . . the Commandant of the Army Institute has been instructed to receive and act upon applications from Naval personnel for Army Institute courses.

The Navy Department detailed an officer to Institute headquarters to serve as Navy Registrar. Enrollment applications from personnel of the Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard began to pour in. This made the Institute an all-service school, open to personnel of all of the armed forces—men and women. Navy Department

participation in the Institute program is directed by the Educational Services Section of the Training Division, Bureau of Naval Personnel. Lieutenant Commander Ralph A. Sentman, U.S.N. (Ret.) is chief of the Educational Services Section.

Soon after the bluejackets and leathernecks were included in the Institute, the War Department issued the following memorandum:

The Army Institute, Madison, Wisconsin, is redesignated the United States Armed Forces Institute.

3. Advisory Committee of the United States Armed Forces Institute

Early in the development of plans for the Institute an Advisory Committee was appointed to aid in the development of instructional and text materials adapted to the varying environment of men in the armed forces. This committee of educators was appointed by the Subcommittee on Education of the Joint Army-Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation, a civilian group primarily responsible for the Institute's creation. The Joint Army-Navy Committee is described elsewhere in this issue of the JOURNAL.

The Advisory Committee meets monthly in a two-day session, assists in the development of policies in the preparation of instructional and testing materials; at the request of the armed forces, reviews the materials submitted and makes such other recommendations regarding courses and credit as, in its judgment, will increase the effectiveness of the Institute in its service to men and women in the armed forces.

4. The Curriculum

The catalogue of the Institute, *What Would You Like To Learn?*, describes some of the educational opportunities available to men and women in the armed forces of the United States. The catalogue has been distributed to all units of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard. Copies have also been provided high-school and

college guidance officers for use in counseling students soon to be inducted.

a) *Five Hundred Correspondence Courses*

More than 500 correspondence courses are offered America's soldiers and sailors for study during off duty time. Under Plan 1, courses offered directly by the Institute, 64 subjects are available in the following fields: English, social studies, mathematics, science, business, mechanics, electricity, civil engineering.

Under Plan 2 some 450 university and high school credit courses are offered in the following fields: English, foreign languages, mathematics, general science, physics, chemistry, biology, geology, geography, world history, civics, government, economics, sociology, psychology, statistics, health, vocational, technical, and professional work directly related to military activities.

The catalogue lists all of the courses offered in the various fields of study—too long a list to include here. Civilian readers interested in securing the complete list of courses will find a catalogue at War Information Centers, at public libraries, at schools and colleges, or they may write for a copy to the United States Armed Forces Institute, Madison, Wisconsin.

b) *Foreign Language Department*

In addition to the foreign language courses provided by the cooperating colleges and universities the Education Branch of the War Department has prepared entirely new self teaching instructional materials in more than 25 languages. Elementary or "first level" materials are designed to equip the service men with a minimum speaking ability in foreign tongues. More advanced or "second level" materials provide a basic speaking vocabulary of 500 to 800 words. Instruction at both levels uses specially prepared phonograph records and supplementary printed materials.

Strange Tongues for Johnny Doughboy, written by the War

Department Bureau of Public Relations, gives an interesting description of this new type of foreign language instruction.

c) *New Self-Teaching Materials*

The correspondence method of instruction is particularly well suited to a student body as widespread as are the men and women in the armed forces. Especially is it suited to personnel of small isolated units. But correspondence instruction depends on speedy mail service for effectiveness. That speedy mail service is available in the United States and by photo or V-mail to troops in some areas overseas. But to large numbers of the Institute's overseas student body—and they number nearly 60 per cent of the total—some other means of instruction had to be devised.

In addition the Education Branch soon experienced a demand for textbooks for use in class instruction, especially from overseas. This demand is increasing daily and will undoubtedly be tremendous during the demobilization and occupation period—before that in inactive theaters of war. Specially designed textbooks for use by volunteer group leaders or teachers are needed to fill this need.

To supplement correspondence instruction and to provide class-use textbooks styled to meet the needs of service men the Education Branch, with the help of the Institute Advisory Committee, planned a new self-teaching type of instructional material. It was decided to develop materials that as far as possible eliminated the necessity for a teacher. The teacher would be on the phonograph record, in the film, or in the book.

To "put the teacher in the book" the Education Branch is using the facilities of publishing companies, authors of leading textbooks, and a civilian staff of expert editorial men. Each book takes the student in hand from the first page and leads him step by step through the study of the subject. Explanations are made as full and as clear as possible; each book is filled with problems and other types of application; illustrations are found on nearly every page.

A practice book or workbook accompanies each text; self-administering tests with answers are provided. Everything is done that can possibly be done to make the printed materials self-teaching. In many cases films and phonograph records are used to supplement the printed materials.

The editorial staff, directed by Mr. William F. Spaulding, for the United States Armed Forces Institute with its small civilian staff of editorial experts, aided from time to time by special consultants, is responsible for the preparation and production of all self-teaching materials. It is described in the American Council on Education Bulletin No. 36.

Colonel Spaulding and his staff have high hopes for the self-teaching materials. They expect them to serve in place of correspondence courses for individual study by men in small isolated units overseas; they expect these new materials to be the answer to the need for textbooks for overseas class use under volunteer leaders or teachers; they expect them to meet Army and Navy "specifications." Early reports filtering back to Washington say that the Education Branch has discovered the right formula, that the self-teaching materials are just what is needed.

d) *Class Instruction*

The United States Armed Forces Institute began as a correspondence school. As described previously it soon found it necessary to serve the needs of class or group instruction. Now the Institute ships all kinds of standard textbooks and the new self-teaching materials to units all over the world. It is planned to create stock piles of materials in ports of embarkation and in ports of debarkation, the better to service educational needs. A branch of the Institute has been established in Hawaii; others are in process; more are planned—again to better serve the education needs of our fighting forces in individual and in group instruction.

The Army does not hire teachers for off-duty voluntary class

instruction. All teaching of this type—and there is plenty of it—is done by volunteers from the men themselves or by civilians. Some of it is impromptu and shortlived, to fill a current need. Group study of the "quickie" foreign language materials falls in this category. Some of it is purposeful, planned, and lasting—men drawn together for self-improvement with a goal in mind and the determination to reach it.

To assist further in the development of class instruction the Education Branch has recruited a group of experienced educational administrators and supervisors—specialists—trained them in Army style of education and sent them to Service Command (Corps Area) Headquarters in the United States and to theaters and bases overseas. These Education Officers, as they are called, serve as educational advisers to commanding officers and Special Service officers throughout their territories helping with technical professional problems and organizing off-duty education programs. Twenty-five of these specialists are now in uniform, applying their professional training and experience to the needs of America's highly educated Army and Navy When hostilities cease these men will have in operation a farflung field organization that can be expanded overnight.

5. ACCREDITATION

a) *Army "Credit"*

Army "credit" for study with the Armed Forces Institute was quickly arranged. The Soldier's Qualification Card carries an entry for courses completed with the Institute The civilian counterpart of the Soldier's Qualification Card is the permanent record kept by the college registrar, a business firm's personnel history form, or a high school's cumulative record file. The Soldier's Qualification Card is an important record when promotions are being considered. An entry here is "credit."

b) *School and College Credit*

Plans and arrangements for school and college accreditation of military educational experiences is now in process. It is a joint undertaking of the Education Branch of the War Department and the Educational Services Section of the Navy Department, assisted by the Institute Advisory Committee and the American Council on Education. The subject is covered fully in a Council publication, *Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience.*

c) *Tests of Educational Maturity*

Tests of educational maturity are also described in the American Council bulletin, *Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience.* These and other tests are being developed by a special civilian staff known as the Examinations Staff for the United States Armed Forces Institute. Ralph Tyler, University Examiner, University of Chicago, is director of the Examinations Staff. Associated with Dr. Tyler and directly responsible for the tests of educational maturity is E. F. Lindquist, Professor of Education, State University of Iowa.

6. THE STUDENT BODY

Soldiers, sailors, marines, men of the Coast Guard, women of the WAAC, WAVES, SPARS, and Marine Corps auxiliary - all are eligible to enroll as correspondence students or in the class instruction program of the United States Armed Forces Institute.

And the registrations are pouring in by the thousands from all over the world. Civilians may wonder if men in the service have time for off-duty education. The service men are saying "Yes" and spending an average of seven hours a week on their Institute study. When basic and specialist training have been completed and men are assigned to inactive theaters overseas they find ample time to devote to a continuation of this education. War is likely to be 90 per

cent monotony and 10 per cent active combat. And during the 90 per cent alert but inactive period, the opportunity to "go to college" is an important morale booster.

Questionnaires to men studying Institute correspondence courses bring to light many interesting facts and opinions. Men say that they are studying their courses to get ahead in the Army and to get ready for a return to civil life. They report studying in camp libraries, on barrack bunks, in tents by candlelight. Seventy-five per cent of those completing courses report that they have received promotions. All are enthusiastic over the excellent lesson service provided by university instructors. Some ask permission to take two courses at once; the percentage of reenrollments in second and third courses is high.

Here is an analysis of the "student body" of this University of the Armed Forces that makes extremely interesting reading. It is taken from a monthly report of the Commandant of the Institute.

59 per cent of the students are overseas.
41 per cent are in the United States.
99 per cent of the students are men.
1 per cent of the students are women.

Privates are enrolled in the greatest numbers, followed in order by corporals, privates first-class, sergeants, staff sergeants, technical sergeants, and master sergeants.

The age breakdown of enrollees is as follows:

	Per Cent
Under 20 years	1
20–24 years	42
25–29 years	36
30–34 years	11
35–39 years	4
40–44 years	3
45 years and over	4

The previous education of enrollees ranges from completion of the fourth grade to Ph.D.'s

	Per Cent
Below 6th grade	1
6th grade	1
7th grade	1
8th grade	7
	10
1st year high school	6
2d year high school	10
3d year high school	9
4th year high school	12
	67
1st year college	8
2d year college	7
3d year college	3
4th year college and more	5
	23

Institute enrollees prefer mathematics and business courses.

	Per Cent
Mathematics	30
Business	26
Mechanical	10
Electrical	11
English	6
Science	3
Civil engineering	3
Social studies	2

University extension enrollees select mathematics, English, social studies, and business subjects.

	Per Cent
Mathematics	26
Business	16
Social studies	16
English	15

	Per Cent
Foreign languages	10
Science	8
Engineering	4
Miscellaneous professional	2
Others	3

7. THE UNITED STATES ARMED FORCES INSTITUTE FILM SERVICE

The Film Service is the latest addition to the varied projects of the Education Branch of the War Department. It promises to be one of the most active. Announcements of the Film Service include the production of sound motion-picture films in the teaching of foreign languages, and in the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic.

8. THE ARMY LIBRARY SERVICE

Soldiers are crowding post, camp, and station libraries requesting library services. And the Education Branch of the War Department is doing its best to meet the demand, for library service fills a war need! A bundle of magazines dropped off by a plane of the Air Transport Command to a unit stationed "somewhere overseas" is a morale booster of importance.

The War Department has accepted full responsibility for providing troops with library service. Men and women inducted into the Army are able when in uniform to obtain reading material—books, magazines, and newspapers; fiction and nonfiction; technical books, textbooks, and reference books. Library service has been recognized as one of the necessary services of the War Department.

The Army has built the largest library system in the world. It operates 2,000 libraries, owns 10 million books, is receiving monthly hundreds of thousands of magazines and newspapers, and has purchased huge quantities of pamphlets and maps. One hundred and fifty miles of shelving would be required to accommodate the books alone.

This concludes this fingertip description of the University of the Armed Forces, a university of the War and Navy Departments

working in cooperation with civilian educational institutions to make it possible for civilians in uniform to become better fighting men and to prepare for a return to civil pursuits

BOOK REVIEWS

The Negro Caravan, edited by Sterling A. Brown, Arthur P Davis, and Ulysses Lee. New York: The Dryden Press, 1941, 1,082 pages

This is by far the most complete compilation of Negro writings published to date. The authors have selected materials from every era of America's history and every phase of Negro contributions The materials are arranged under the headings: Short Stories; Novels (selections); Poetry; Folk Literature; Drama; Speeches, Pamphlets, and Letters; Biography and Autobiography and Essays.

The selections are well made, and the authors are to be congratulated on their inclusion of folk literature As this reviewer read through the pages of this caravan he was impressed more than ever by the debt of gratitude America owes to the Negro for his numerous contributions.

How to Locate Educational Information and Data, by Carter Alexander. Second edition New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941, xiv + 443 pages.

Typical of his usual thoroughness, the author has markedly improved and expanded his earlier edition of this volume, which becomes an indispensable guide to research workers, writers, and other serious students in the field of education Services available in libraries and elsewhere that aid in spotting pertinent data are classified. Proficient steps in locating and using desired information are outlined This volume should be available in every professional library and school system in the country.

Methods of Lesson Observing by Preservice Student-Teachers, by Roland Henry Chatterton. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941, 137 pages

The author makes an analysis of various observational techniques used

by supervised student teachers as they are guided in appraising different types of classroom situations. Some techniques appear to have greater value than others. This study will be of use to instructors directing observation and supervising student teaching as well as instructors in methods courses.

College and Life, by M. E. Bennett. Second edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941, 503 pages.

College and Life, which is a revision of the original manuscript published in 1933, is an excellent textbook for use in an orientation course in college life for freshman students. The material dealing with learning and with effective study habits is particularly good. There are many practical suggestions on the use of the library and on the improvement of reading ability. The brief section entitled "Living in College" contains much sound and practical advice for the young college student.

Patterns of Workers' Education, by Florence Hemley Schneider. Washington, D.C.: The American Council on Public Affairs, 1941, 158 pages.

In 1921, for the first time in the history of the United States, a women's college opened its doors for a new and very different group of students—women factory workers. At the Bryn Mawr Summer School for Women Workers, a group of women leaders in the labor movement, themselves industrial workers, sat down for long sessions on educational policies with representatives of college trustees, faculty, and alumni. As a result of this careful planning, a new type of school evolved. In this scholarly study of workers' education, Dr. Schneider has told the story of the development, both within and without the trade-union movement, of educational experiments for adult women workers with special reference to the Bryn Mawr venture. The volume is a comprehensive and informative one. As labor takes its place in the social order and as collective bargaining supersedes individual bargaining, it is reasonable to suppose that both industrial and craft unions will more and more turn to educational ventures to ensure adequate training of competent leaders and of alert and thinking members. It is in this connection that educators may have a contribution to make to organized labor.

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